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THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

OCTOBER 1946

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Volume LIV

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Volume LIV

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Number 8

Educational News and Editorial Comment

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ATTEMPTS TO CORRECT MANPOWER SHORTAGES IN EDUCATION

THERE is sound reason for alarm because of the current scarcity of qualified teachers. There is even more justification for alarm about the scarcity of prospective teachers. The experiences of educational administrators in attempting to locate trained staff at all levels during the past spring and summer need no verbalization from any source to impress on educational leaders the dilemma which the nation faces because of the lack of a much-needed supply of teachers. This situation is especially unfortunate at a time when formal schooling is sought by unprecedented numbers of youth and adults, many of whom are veterans. Were there relief in sight, the current effects would prove to be harmful enough, but there is nothing in the immediate future which provides the slightest justification for optimism about an increase in the number of available teachers in the years to come. Though colleges and universities are crowded, teachers'

colleges and teacher-training programs are at present operating much under capacity.

The decline in the attractiveness and the holding-power of the teaching profession has been gradual. The reasons for this decline seem apparent to several writers who have been considering the subject within the past several years. According to their observations, teachers have been poorly paid; have been unfairly and unjustly treated in many communities, especially in the smaller places; and have not had the advantages which other workers enjoy in their jobs. It merely took the war with many attractive offers in other lines of work, the patriotic appeals from areas outside education, and the general desire to do something other than the accustomed thing, to lure thousands of teachers from classrooms and to accentuate the trend away from the teaching profession.

What is being done to offset this trend? For one thing, broad segments of the population are being ac-

quainted with the fact of teacher shortage and its implications to the whole of our society. Several articles in professional and lay magazines and special leaflets have recently been published with this objective in mind.

Defining the problem One such leaflet should be given wide publicity by educators and interested lay leaders. It is entitled *The Crisis in Teaching*, and it was prepared recently by the Executive Committee of the Council on Cooperation in Teacher Education for submission to the American Council on Education and the seventeen national educational associations constituting the Council on Cooperation's membership. Copies may be obtained from the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Northwest, Washington 6, D.C. In summing up the material presented in this folder, the following statements are made:

There is a crisis in teaching in the United States today. A shortage of competent teachers, rising to new heights during war, but now unrelieved by peace, is denying American children the quality of teaching they need and have a right to receive. It is producing a generation inadequately equipped to meet the challenges of an uncertain future. The crisis is thus a matter of national concern.

The situation must be dealt with, positively and at once. Teaching must be made more attractive to able men and women. Money must be found to raise teachers' salaries to decent levels, and to provide them with better leadership, tools, and working conditions. Teachers must be granted more respect and more opportunity.

At the same time the satisfactions of a teaching career, under good conditions, must be systematically presented to able high-school and college students. Indeed, a deliberate effort to identify and attract persons likely to become excellent teachers must be made. Then they must be provided with superior preparation for teaching and enabled to take advantage of that provision.

These are imperatives. If we delay, the opportunity to teach today's children well, and so to prepare them well for tomorrow, will be gone. The crisis must then become more critical. Now is the moment for Americans to act.

Another kind of pamphlet which aims to acquaint the public with the need for raising educational standards and the importance of an adequate supply of well-prepared teachers in this program is *A Challenge to Georgia and Georgians*, which has been compiled and published by the Public Relations Division of the Georgia Education Association. Though the arrangement of the text cannot be reproduced here, the following statements are quoted to indicate the type of material which this brochure contains.

SHORT ROAD TO DISASTER!

Between the school years of 1943-44 and 1944-45, Georgia's elementary and secondary schools lost 6,699 teachers (4,475 white and 2,224 colored). And the highest percentage of those quitting their jobs were those teachers holding 2 and 4 year certificates. *Those best qualified by training!* 6,699—a turnover of 33½%. Education is the soundest social investment which can be employed, and the nation, state, or community which neglects it is inviting disaster. Raise teachers' salaries 50% this year!

Attracting able stu- dents

There is another approach to the solution of solving the teacher shortage for the future. This approach is to attempt to attract high-school and college students to the teaching profession. Harl R. Douglass, director of the College of Education at the University of Colorado, has an article in the *Kentucky School Journal* for May, 1946, which presents the case favorably for men entering teaching. On the basis of the statistics which he offers on salaries, Douglass concludes:

One need not be concerned about matters of differences in income. *In fact in proportion to the amount of college education he has had, the male educator is at least as well paid as the physician, dentist, or attorney of the same number of years of experience. . . .*

Since there is no significant difference in the income a young man may expect to receive, it is evident that he should choose between education and some other profession on some basis—a desire for service, conditions of work, taste for different types of work, social prestige, and the opportunities of the necessity for moving around, security and conditions of retirement. Let us see how education compares in these respects with other professions.

1. The educator can experience as much satisfaction from the value of his service as the physician, more than the attorney.

2. His working conditions are generally better than either of the others. He can have his evenings and week ends relatively free. He has much longer vacations at various times in the year.

3. His work gives him opportunity for expression, and he is not dependent for his income upon the misfortunes of others. Rather than merely mitigating evils, his work is creative; it builds for the future.

4. The social prestige of the school administrator and college teacher is on a par with that of other professions.

5. While the attorney, dentist, or physician may move around only at great risk because of the necessity for building a new practice, the educator's career may call him to various sections of the country. To some, of course, this fact is a disadvantage since promotion may involve moving to a new community.

6. There is unusual security in educational work. Having a job does not depend upon keeping a practice and indeed very little upon health.

7. Most colleges, and a rapidly increasing number of school systems, have plans for paying to teachers and administrators an annual stipend sufficient to support them in old age.

8. The educator may continue to grow and to learn, and is therefore less likely to deteriorate intellectually than other professional men.

A careful analysis of the whole picture makes it clear that if an intelligent boy has the potentialities of a superior teacher or administrator and likes to work with both books and people, he should be encouraged to consider most seriously going into educational work. On the market, his abilities and qualities will bring him as much in the way of salary in education as in any other profession—at least up to the point of \$10,000 or more.

For a few years, as long as the boom lasts, more money may be made (or lost) in business, in medicine, or in law, than in education. When the depression comes as it will, most likely throughout the fifties, the educator will be "sitting pretty" as far as security is concerned and his salary will put him in a preferred class.

Go out of your way to locate promising young men for educational work—the very best—and encourage them to go into education. You will be doing them no harm, perhaps a real service, and you may be certain

that you will render a valuable service to society.

The Phi Delta Kappa, a professional education fraternity, has appointed a committee for the purpose of instituting "a program designed to recruit from all possible sources the most promising men and women as professional educators. Special emphasis should be given to men in the recruiting program." Other professional organizations already have appointed, or are being encouraged to appoint, similar committees from among their membership for this high purpose.

Accelerating training Still another attempt which is being made to increase the supply of teachers in the not too distant future is the institution of accelerated programs of training. President John C. Baker, of Ohio University at Athens, Ohio, recently announced that his institution had set up a cadet teaching-training program to qualify for four-year provisional certificates. This step was taken in furtherance of the plan recently announced by Clyde His-song, state superintendent of public instruction.

Eighty girls will be admitted to the intensive two-year course of study to prepare as elementary-school teachers for Ohio. New housing, new study facilities, and new course materials have been arranged. Dean Evan R. Collins, of Ohio University's College of Education, emphasized that candidates for admission must signify their intention of teaching in Ohio elemen-

tary schools under the terms of the State Department of Education's cadet four-year provisional certificate. The course, regularly four semesters, may be shortened by summer work. Dean Collins declared:

This program is not for academic weak-lings. It is an intensive two-year course designed for strong students. It combines a broad foundation in college English, science and social sciences, music and art, with intensive professional education and practice in teaching. Students completing this program will be skilled beginning teachers who command professional respect.

Students in this special program will have full university privileges.

Informing the public It is hoped that through the writing, the pamphleteering, the special training programs, and the recruiting campaigns within the profession, many promising young men and women will be encouraged to make teaching a life-career. Something more, however, must be done if America is to have an adequate supply of teachers. The average citizen must be made to realize the critical character of the situation, which will affect everyone should shortages in the supply of teachers long continue. The typical board of education and the typical community must be made to feel their responsibility in helping to elevate teaching as a profession.

Lay magazines are beginning to recognize the teacher-supply shortage by publishing articles which attract attention to the need of reforms in community attitudes toward teachers.

For general consumption there are needed more articles of the kind which appeared in *Collier's* on August 24, 1946, "Why Teachers Quit School" by Elizabeth Irwin as told to Leonard Paris. Miss Irwin is a former teacher who left the profession after more than twenty years of successful service. Her opening paragraphs should be startling to readers who have been complacent about the public-school situation. They bear repeating here.

I have left public-school teaching and I do not intend to go back. I quit because I could no longer be happy in a situation where there was so little real concern for the needs of children.

This sounds like a condemnation of our public schools. But it is also a condemnation of the responsible citizens of every community—many of them without any active connection with the schools—who have caused our teachers to fail.

The failure of our teachers is a tragedy for American youth. Boys and girls are growing up in school situations which fit them no better than hand-me-down clothes. They are forced into rigid molds, not by the will of the teachers so much as by sheer necessity. They are learning not to become thinking, reasoning individuals who can take their place in democratic society, but to follow the mob, to drift, and to procrastinate.

Why don't the teachers do something about it? Because they are either too weak, too timid, or too fine-grained; because too often, they are balked at every turn by ill-informed and shortsighted school boards and administrators; and because nobody likes to go on breaking his heart over a problem he is powerless to lick.

As a matter of fact, very few teachers are fighters. Most of them have been so held down and oppressed by nonsensical rules that they have lost their spirit.

Some of these rules have as little bearing

on the matter of effective teaching as the mean annual rainfall in Guatemala. No smoking, no dancing, no leg make-up. One community in Michigan even forbade its men teachers to bowl! There are towns which regulate the number of dates a teacher may have during a week and the hours she must keep.

This type of information, if generally disseminated among people of all walks of life, may prove effective on a long-term basis. If incorrect community attitudes are preventing young people from entering or remaining in teaching, the truth should be brought to light even though its presentation seems destructive rather than immediately constructive.

FEDERAL AND STATE AID TO VETERANS' EDUCATION

SECONDARY-SCHOOL teachers and administrators were made to feel during the past several months the overcrowded condition of colleges and universities by the difficulties which even some of their better graduates experienced in attempting to continue their education. The "no vacancy" sign was hung on the doors of many institutions of higher learning as early as last spring. It was generally anticipated that, with the conclusion of hostilities and the opportunities provided by Public Law 346 (G.I. Bill), the colleges and universities would be somewhat crowded by veterans. The influx of veterans, however, has far exceeded most predictions. By late spring and early summer it became quite apparent that facilities in higher education were most inadequate.

The publicly supported colleges and universities felt public pressure. If present facilities were inadequate, additions should be made. Men and women who had faithfully and effectively served their country in time of war were in no frame of mind to accept explanations about quotas and capacities when they applied for admission to colleges or state universities.

In *The Veteran and Higher Education*, A Report to the President by the Director of War Mobilization and Reconversion, issued on May 20, 1946, the entire national situation is reviewed as it affects veterans and their further training at the college and university level. Secondary-school teachers and administrators are interested because more of their students who graduate in February and June will be seeking admission into colleges and universities. A copy of this report can be obtained through the United States Government Printing Office at Washington, D.C. The federal government action is explained as follows in this report:

As a first step, the Office of War Mobilization and Reconversion established a Federal Interagency Committee on Veterans Affairs. . . .

The several agencies represented on that committee have, within the past few weeks, developed a nine-point program of joint action to meet the most pressing of the immediate problems. The following steps have been taken:

1. All currently unused Army and Navy facilities—whether declared surplus or held in stand-by condition—together with any appropriate equipment they contain are

being made available to the colleges and universities on a no-cost lease basis.

Use of these facilities as temporary school buildings and student housing centers will be the most effective single means of securing the necessary expansion, provided the colleges and universities supplement the action of the Federal Government by providing the necessary administration, faculty, and supplementary equipment.

2. The temporary housing program which the Congress authorized to assist educational institutions has been expanded to provide living quarters for 300,000 student veterans. Of these, 100,000 will be quartered on or near college grounds while 200,000 will be housed in existing war housing, "in place" military installations or converted facilities. Where necessary, steps will be taken to provide transportation between campuses and outlying housing facilities.

3. The Civilian Production Administration has liberalized procedures under which educational institutions will be authorized to build non-housing facilities under the construction limitation order. Applications for such authorizations will be acted upon within 48 hours. CPA Review Committees will authorize all expansion projects which are indispensable in the veterans' educational program.

4. Priority regulations are being amended to permit assignment of preference ratings to new construction projects, such as clinics, laboratories, and dining facilities which are clearly necessary to permit a college or university to provide for its student veterans.

5. Distribution of surplus equipment and supplies to educational institutions has been speeded up. The War Assets Administration is adding an educational specialist to each of its regional staffs to assist college officials in locating the supplies they need. An inter-agency committee under the chairmanship of the Retraining and Re-employment Administrator is preparing lists of the items most urgently needed by educational institutions. These items are being set aside by the

War Assets Administration to the extent permitted by law.

6. The donation programs of the War Department, the Navy Department, and other agencies have been expanded and will be expanded further, particularly with respect to required laboratory and scientific supplies and equipment.

7. Two million surplus textbooks are being distributed at nominal prices, and production of additional new textbooks is being facilitated.

8. The Office of Education is assisting state agencies to establish clearing systems to supply current information on the existence of vacancies in schools and particular courses. These will assist school officials in guiding veterans whom they must turn away to areas where their chances for enrolment are greatest.

9. Recruitment and placement programs of the National Roster of Scientific and Specialized Personnel for college and university teachers have been intensified.

The states are co-operating in the program of veterans' education. The University of Illinois will open this autumn for the first time a branch on Navy Pier, Chicago, to be known as the Undergraduate Division of the University of Illinois at Chicago. At present this new branch will serve students at the Freshman and Sophomore levels. It has three divisions: one for liberal-arts students, one for students preparing for business, and one for those interested in engineering. The authorities estimate that this branch of the University of Illinois will be able to accommodate four thousand students.

The "News Bulletin of the Public Administration Clearing House" (1313 East Sixtieth Street, Chicago 37, Il-

linois), for August 23, 1946, contained the following statements of how states are attempting to cope with the crisis in higher education.

Emergency colleges for vets.—Two emergency colleges created expressly to serve returning servicemen are now accepting applications in New York State, according to the Council of State Governments.

The two emergency units at Plattsburg and Sampson are designed to accommodate a total of eleven thousand ex-G.I. students and are being administered by ten up-state colleges and universities. The special program is being carried out in co-operation with state efforts to meet the demand for college facilities stimulated by G.I. Bill of Rights educational provisions.

Regular Freshman liberal-arts and business-administration courses will be offered this fall, with Sophomore courses to be added in 1947. Students who complete two years' work will be eligible for transfer to another college of their choice.

Both schools will offer courses on a standard collegiate, three-quarter year basis. A fourth quarter will be offered during the summer for those who choose to accelerate their collegiate programs.

Clearing-houses for collegians.—A clearing-house to help direct the traffic jam of applications for admission to colleges and universities is being set up in Minnesota by the State Department of Education, the Council of State Governments reports.

Applicants for admission to higher-education units already filled will be referred to other institutions where accommodations are still available. The service is part of a state plan to make a college education available to each of the forty-one thousand students expected to apply for admission to Minnesota schools this fall.

Schools for teachers and junior colleges in the state have the most room for enrolment expansion currently, surveys have shown, so the clearing-house will channel applicants to

the two-year colleges nearest their homes for the first several semesters of their college work. Students may later transfer to other schools.

No doubt these descriptions of the response of the states to the needs of the veterans seeking further education represent but a small fraction of the many things that are taking place throughout the United States. In the light of the situation, however, nothing more is happening than should justifiably take place in order for the public to provide the kinds of educational facilities which should be available to veterans and to recent high-school graduates.

WHAT KINDS OF EDUCATION SHOULD BE PROVIDED?

PROVIDING adequate facilities for caring for those who desire education does not, of itself, solve the age-old problem of the kind of education that they should receive. At a time when the exigencies of the situation force upon administrators the task of providing classrooms, living quarters, teachers, books, and other necessary ingredients of educational institutions, all equally difficult to obtain, it may be out of order to inquire what constitutes an education. Sooner or later, however, this question becomes the real issue. Many of those who so seriously seek further education may not be too pleased after they have acquired what is being given them as education. At least it might be good self-protection, on a long-term basis, for educators to give some publicity to

the debates about what constitutes an education, even while they are being pressed to provide more and more schooling for more and more individuals.

The need for clarification of our aims Mark Starr, educational director of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union, made the following statements in *Labor Looks at Education*, the 1946 Inglis Lecture in Secondary Education (Harvard University Press):

The basic trouble of our uncertainty about education at the present moment is that we are not sure what sort of citizens we want to produce. We are torn between education and money-grubbing. Do we want to prepare students for civic responsibilities and the wise use of leisure or is it enough to train them for making a livelihood? Do we estimate the value of a man by the richness of his thought, the breadth of his reading, and his store of interesting experiences brilliantly described, or do we admire the "big shot" whose skills are strictly commercial and whose claim to fame is based upon the size of his bankroll? The first colleges aimed to produce preacher-teachers; now the Harvard Committee's Report (*General Education in a Free Society*, Harvard University Press, 1945) says that religious belief cannot be the basis for education. . . .

If we are not honest with ourselves, then we cannot be honest with our students. If society itself has no certain, conscious aim, how can the school whose function it is to support the *status quo* express that aim? Clarity about aims is inseparable from clarity about methods. If you aim to produce a yes-man patriot, your method will be goose-step training and mass recitation, with opportunities for initiative, originality, and scientific thinking reduced to a minimum. If a woman is to be a clothes model whereby

her future husband can vicariously display his wealth at the country club, why bother to give her more than conversational chatter and a knowledge of cosmetics and beauty aids? Education perforce shares with our modern society a schizophrenic existence. It is too much to ask education to be logical and simple when our community is so full of contradictions.

Venture in education Several institutions throughout the United States are pioneering this autumn in new educational ventures. A project being undertaken at the Western Michigan College in Kalamazoo is described in the following news release:

Under the leadership of Paul V. Sangren, president of Western Michigan College, who is also president of the American Association of Teachers Colleges, initial steps have been taken on Western Michigan College campus, in a pioneer movement to build an educational program with possibilities of nationwide scope, which would provide for unity in action for democratic citizenship.

A committee has been appointed headed by Roy C. Bryan of the faculty, which has devoted much time during the summer in preparation for attacking the problem in the autumn. Starting September 30, half-day sessions at least once each month will be devoted by the members of this committee to the undertaking.

In outlining the problem, President Sangren declared that in his opinion democracy cannot survive unless there is concerted, nation-wide action to develop democratic citizenship:

"Upon the fate of democracy in America depends the fate of democracy in the world. We need a new conception of a great education adapted to the new civilization, which will unify our people in mind and purpose. This new education must be concerned more with the interests of people as members of a

free American society than with their individual and technical differences."

However, Dr. Sangren emphasizes that the development of the individual must be likewise continued in the spirit of democracy.

Dr. Sangren sees grave danger in the willingness of large numbers of American citizens to relinquish their democratic rights and ideals in exchange for the promise of economic security.

"In the vast school population with widely diverse characteristics, we dare not let purposelessness and uncertain planning act as a force for the destruction of American ideals and ideas. This is obviously the most urgent national problem we face. So basic is it to our self-preservation that it amounts to a national emergency. In a very broad sense the problem is an international one for Americans. The task before us is to make democracy work in such a way that we can contribute significantly to human welfare the world over.

"In our present deep crisis the role of education and the educator becomes so significant as to be almost overwhelming. Now we realize, as never before, that educators must stand shoulder to shoulder, in a united program of action in behalf of the American way.

"From my viewpoint the problem is dual in nature. It is the distinct challenge for American education not only to explore what this program shall be but also how it can be presented. The program must meet the needs of the people of different ages, abilities, culture and racial backgrounds in such a way as to have meaning for all and yet remain the same in goal—unity—action behind the common cause of American democracy."

Dr. Sangren recommends that the committee seek the advice and viewpoints of persons of the widest possible contacts and experiences with life. He adds: "I should also like to comment that, whatever the program of education recommended by the committee, it should hold the world of emotion as real as the world of intellect. Moral qualities

and attitudes must be provided for as well as processes in calculation. The enjoyment of living should be as basic as the development of skills. The arts should hold a place as significant as science."

A program in adult education Recently, Chancellor Robert M. Hutchins announced a new basic

program of liberal education for adults to be offered by the University College of the University of Chicago. This new program is to begin with the autumn quarter of 1946. Students of the program meet two evenings a week, nine months every year, for four years. In the official announcement the purpose of the program is clearly presented.

What is a liberal education? How does it concern adults? Why should there be a basic program of liberal education for adults?

Education includes skills and knowledge. Liberal education includes the skills and knowledge that liberate the mind. Liberal education is education for free men, and education to make men free. The essential skills can be enumerated, and the essential knowledge can be described; but it is neither possible nor necessary to say precisely how much skill and knowledge are essential to a liberal education. The skills are the skills of reading, listening, thinking, writing, and speaking. The knowledge is a knowledge of the main ideas, the main disciplines, and the main dilemmas that have inspired and perplexed men from the beginning of civilization. Although many men have regarded their liberal education as complete when their formal training came to an end, there is no point beyond which the skills may not be improved, the knowledge increased, and the liberal education cultivated.

Liberal education has deeper meaning in the purposes it serves. It prepares men to discover the true, cultivate the good,

and enjoy the beautiful. Truth, goodness, and beauty—their discovery, cultivation, and enjoyment embody the highest rewards and obligations of human existence. The men who apply their liberal education to these ends experience the fulness of life and discharge their obligations to society.

Liberal education naturally and inevitably concerns adults. Those without the benefits of liberal education suffer disadvantage in the enjoyment of life and in the fulfilment of its obligations. Those who have mastered the elements of liberal education are concerned to retain them, for without continued cultivation and exercise the mind deteriorates. Liberal education is preparation for intellectual pursuits; the mature mind is their most important tool and mature experience their natural medium. A free society depends for its continued existence upon citizens who are in a state of becoming wise, and who are constantly applying to the problems society faces the wisdom they have acquired. There rests upon all free men a deep personal obligation and an inescapable political obligation to serve themselves and their free society by unremittingly maintaining their course along the path of liberal education.

Adults who recognize the attractions of liberal education and their obligation to pursue it may believe they have no opportunity to do so. They may hold that the pursuit of liberal education is the exclusive privilege of a leisure class; that the only real leisure class of today is the young; and that the only available time for liberal education is before the assumption of the social, political, and economic responsibilities of maturity. These beliefs are fruitless, and they are false. There are no adults today who do not have some leisure time at their disposal which for lack of foresight in its expenditure is wasted in the dissipations of boredom. There is every prospect that the amount of available leisure time for all adults will be greatly increased in the future. What slavery gave to a limited class in Athens, technology will give to

everyone in modern society—the opportunity to pursue his highest human ends.

In terms of its attractions, in terms of the obligations of free men in a free society, and in terms of opportunity, liberal education is very much the concern of mature men and women.

A basic program of liberal education for adults is needed for the reason that many adults do not have a liberal education, and recognize the lack. Some feel that because they had no formal schooling they have had no liberal education. Others feel that, although they attended school, they were not offered a liberal education. Some feel that the time they spent in the expectation of acquiring a liberal education was not properly spent because they were not ready for it.

It is the purpose of the Basic Program to give to adults the skills, knowledge, and attitudes they need to devote their leisure time successfully to the pursuit of liberal education and the application of its benefits to their daily living. That the program may prepare students for graduate study in the University; enable them to become scientists, scholars, or professionals; or prepare them for vocational opportunities—is only incidental. The prior and most important purpose of the Basic Program is to prepare its students for life.

STUDY-EMPLOYMENT PLANS VERSUS CHILD LABOR

THE history of child-labor legislation in many states is nothing to cause a welling of pride in the hearts of high-minded citizens. Even the current situation is none too stimulating to those who like to think that our present civilization is of high order. Though some were willing during the war to change their concepts of what constitutes child labor, the fact remains that many children and youth of secondary-school age engaged in

financially profitable employment to a degree injurious to their health and education—and this was during a time when the nation was once again shocked at the very deplorable health status of youth of military age.

Though children of school age should not be allowed to be exploited by ruthless employers or situations, it can be emphasized with equal force that work experience and opportunities are valuable to young people of high-school age. Many schools and colleges have accepted the challenge of doing something about stimulating these young people to obtain work experience, without allowing such experiences to injure their health or deprive them of proper formal schooling.

A study of A recent publication,
work experience *Work Experience in Secondary Education*, written by Harold J. Dillon

and published by the National Child Labor Committee (419 Fourth Avenue, New York 16, New York), has provided the profession with an organized presentation of the entire subject with which every secondary-school administrator and guidance official should become fully acquainted. Highly successful programs of regularized study and employment are being carried on by both high schools and colleges. Dillon summarizes in his publication the benefits which have been observed by those who supervise these programs.

1. A tendency to hold in school students who might otherwise have left for full-time employment.

2. Improvement in attendance and scholarship.

3. Critical appraisals of individual students in determining eligibility for part-time work.

4. Placement more in line with the individual's interests and abilities than when students found jobs independently—from which both student and employer benefited.

5. More effective checks against unregulated hours of employment, substandard wages, and hazardous occupations through controlled assignment of work.

6. General improvement in stability among working students. (With reference to emotional instability, provoked by educational maladjustment of the student, many teachers stated that the combination of school and work provided the first educational experiences through which the student, by achieving a measure of success, developed a sense of "belonging.")

7. Greater self-confidence among students as a result of working with adults.

8. Opportunity for subject teachers to appraise classroom instruction in terms of actual performance on the job. This was especially true where students were placed on jobs using skills directly related to their school instruction. An example of this was found among students working in offices and banks where they were using clerical skills.

9. Opportunities for guidance counselors to open meaningful exploratory experiences and processes of orientation through job placement. (A supervisor of nurses in a large Los Angeles hospital employing school girls as part-time workers stated that such experience could become an additional factor in the screening process for potential nursing trainees.)

10. Opportunities for building sound relations between education, labor, and management which resulted in a greater consciousness of the contribution which each can make in the life of the community.

Educators who have had experience with study-employment plans will

read Dillon's contribution because they will find it difficult to refrain from doing so, while others owe it to themselves and their schools to study the brochure carefully.

Community obligations Another interesting publication which has been distributed recently and which deals with the entire problem of education and employment of youth has been prepared by the Interagency Committee on Youth Employment and Education, composed of representatives of agencies of the federal government which are concerned with programs for youth. The booklet, *Your Community and Its Young People: Their Employment and Educational Opportunities*, is Children's Bureau Publication 316 and is distributed by the Government Printing Office. This leaflet helps educators and other interested citizens check up on the services and activities that should be going forward in every community which is attempting to meet its obligation to its youth.

Work-study in college Anyone concerned with the problem of study-employment programs at the college level will find of real interest the symposium on the working student which was part of the inaugural ceremonies of the induction of Robert Ward McEwen as president of Blackburn College, Carlinville, Illinois. The papers are published in the June-July, 1946, issue of the *Blackburn College Bulletin*. Contributors to this symposium are Francis S. Hutchins,

president of Berea College; John D. Dawson, director of personnel at Antioch College; and Howard Y. McClusky, University of Michigan. Both Berea College and Antioch College have had well-established study-employment plans for a number of years.

AMERICAN EDUCATION WEEK

THE editors of educational journals have been requested to make mention of American Education Week, which this year begins November 10. The *School Review* is most happy to comply with this request. Though this is to be the twenty-sixth observance of Education Week, there never was more justification than now for taking special occasion to direct the attention of all citizens to the values of education. The general theme this year is "Education for the Atomic Age," which serves about as satisfactorily for directing the attention of the nation to teacher shortages, consideration of true education, the problems of youth, etc., as would any other general topic. The occasion is a grand one, and educators should enthusiastically take advantage of it. Materials to aid in the formal aspects of the week can be obtained from the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, Northwest, Washington 6, D.C. The program of daily topics for the week is as follows:

Sunday, November 10, "Practicing Brotherhood"
Monday, November 11, "Building World Security"
Tuesday, November 12, "Facing New Tasks"

Wednesday, November 13, "Developing Better Communities"

Thursday, November 14, "Strengthening Home Life"

Friday, November 15, "Investing in Education"

Saturday, November 16, "Promoting Health and Safety"

In addition to the school, many community agencies will be happy to co-operate in active programs for American Education Week. School executives would do well to encourage such co-operation to the fullest.

AN ENLARGED RESEARCH PROGRAM

THE American Association of Junior Colleges announces the expansion and enlargement of its program. According to the new plans, special stress will be placed on research, which has been implemented by a co-operative arrangement with the University of Chicago and by the appointment of five Research and Service Committees to direct the overall program. An Editorial Board is in charge of the *Junior College Journal*. Leonard V. Koos, of the University of Chicago, has been appointed editor of the *Junior College Journal* and director of research for the Association.

Subscriptions and business matters pertaining to the *Journal* will continue to be handled at the business office, 1201 Nineteenth Street, Washington 6, D.C. The new editorial offices are located at the University of Chicago, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago 37, Illinois.

ROBERT C. WOELLNER

WHO'S WHO FOR OCTOBER

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by ROBERT C. WOELLNER, associate professor of education and executive secretary of the Board of Vocational Guidance and Placement at the University of Chicago. RALPH W. TYLER, professor and chairman of the Department of Education and University examiner at the University of Chicago, suggests the role that should be assumed by university departments of education in the preparation of school administrators and analyzes the present training program from the standpoint of its achievements, weaknesses, and suggested future improvements. HAROLD SAXE TUTTLE, professor of education at the City College of the City of New York, discusses the issue of education for appreciation versus education for efficiency and emphasizes the value of including the former in the school curriculums. LELAND L. MEDSKER, dean of Wright Junior College in Chicago, Illinois, presents an exposition of the problems which educational institutions will have to meet in planning programs of veteran education. IRVING FLINKER, teacher of social studies at the Brooklyn Technical High School in Brooklyn, New York, discusses the

promotion of social understanding through the social-studies classes and illustrates his points by citing examples from the procedure used in the Brooklyn Technical High School. WALTER SCRIBNER GUILER, professor of education and director of remedial instruction at Miami University in Oxford, Ohio, presents the results of a study made to ascertain the disabilities of college Freshmen in dealing with sentence structure. A list of selected references on the organization of secondary education is supplied by GORDON N. MACKENZIE, professor of education and executive officer of the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation at Teachers College, Columbia University, and GEORGE M. SHARP, assistant in education at Teachers College, Columbia University.

Reviewers of books ERNIE B. McCUE, professor of education at Fairmont State College, Fairmont, West Virginia. CARROLL D. CHAMPLIN, professor of education at Pennsylvania State College in State College, Pennsylvania. ARTHUR S. WILSON, principal of Central High School at Louisville, Kentucky. ROBERT B. WEAVER, superintendent of the public schools at Goshen, Indiana.

THE ROLE OF UNIVERSITY DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION IN THE PREPARATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS¹

RALPH W. TYLER

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ALTHOUGH educational administration is a very new profession, it has already passed into the third stage of development. The first stage was a trial-and-error period in which problems that arose either were solved largely on the basis of hunch and good luck or were not solved at all. The second stage was the one in which the practices and experiences of school administrators were collected and classified to serve as a body of "best practices." This stage is an obvious improvement over the first, but the use of pooled judgments about "best practices" is not an adequate substitute for tested knowledge and consistent criteria in guiding action. The third stage, the one now characteristic of the more advanced segment of the profession, is one in which coherent theories of administration are being developed and hypotheses are being tested by more rigorous objective evidence from experience and experiment.

The means by which school administrators are prepared for their pro-

fession have also been passing through stages of development. In early days the school administrator was a teacher who was given various administrative responsibilities and who sought to discharge them without benefit of systematic training. This practice was followed, about thirty-five years ago, by the introduction of courses in school administration into the curriculum of departments of education. The work in school administration at this stage was largely one of passing on the professor's collection of "best practices." We are now in a stage in which critical problems in educational administration are being recognized, and students undergoing training in this field are being taught to view these problems in broader context and to attack them through the use of established facts and principles.

At a conference which is devoted primarily to an appraisal of progress in educational administration and to the suggestion of next steps, it is altogether appropriate to examine our present stage of development in the education of school administrators and to propose ways of improving our efforts in this field.

¹ An address given on July 15, 1946, at the fifteenth annual Conference for the Administrative Officers of Public and Private Schools. The complete proceedings will be published by the University of Chicago Press.

ACCOMPLISHMENTS MADE IN PREPARATION OF ADMINISTRATORS

One important achievement has been the formulation of a fairly clear picture of the major functions of the school administrator. The functions of the administrator involve the development of an organization which will carry on the educational responsibilities of the school effectively; the provision of the personnel and facilities required for an effective educational program; the co-ordination of the various parts of the school organization so that they will operate as an integrated, unified system; and the direction and supervision of members of the school staff so that they will be continuously effective and become increasingly more adequate in achieving the educational objectives of the school. This clarification of functions is important as a basis for the education of school administrators since the planning of a training program requires a knowledge of the ends that administrators are expected to serve.

A second major achievement has been the outlining in considerable detail of the legal conditions under which schools operate in the various states of the Union. Knowledge of this sort helps to set the conditions under which the trained administrator operates.

There has also been developed, over the past twenty-five years, a fairly comprehensive analysis of the kinds of duties that the administrator performs in discharging his major functions. Such types of duties have been

identified as those involved in the formulation of educational objectives, the planning of educational programs, the selection of school personnel, the in-service education of personnel, the development of procedures for promotion and salary increases, the procurement of facilities, the development of channels of two-way communication among the parts of the school system, the guidance and training of the school staff, and the securing of community understanding and support for the educational program. This analysis provides a clearer indication of the types of problems with which the administrator must be prepared to cope and the kinds of knowledge and skills that he must have at his command in order to perform these duties.

A fourth major achievement of importance in the development of training programs for school administrators has been the extensive invention of devices and practices of value in performing administrative duties effectively. These include such things as record forms, budget procedures, salary schedules, rating scales—in fact, a host of particulars that are useful in a variety of administrative activities. These devices and practices provide some of the useful content in the training of the school administrator.

A fifth accomplishment is the growing recognition, on the part both of the professional staff and of the public, of the need for systematic training in educational administration. To a large extent, better school systems are re-

quiring that administrative officers possess the Master's degree, with some training in administration. Some of the larger educational institutions and systems are requiring the Doctor's degree, with specialization in administration, for superintendents, principals, and other chief administrative officers. This recognition of the value of training in administration greatly facilitates the development of work in this field.

A sixth achievement is to be found in the considerable group of school administrators who have received systematic training in educational administration and have developed some understanding and skill in performing many of the important duties of the school administrator. There has been provided a nucleus of persons who can continue to develop the field of school administration and who will continue to support efforts to improve the education of school administrators.

Finally, mention should be made of the achievement represented by the fact that both pre-service and in-service programs for the education of school administrators have been developed and are widely accepted by leaders of the profession. Some professions, like medicine and law, suffered greatly during the early stages of development because of the failure to recognize the need for continued in-service education. Many of the older physicians were not able to take advantage of new developments in the field because they did not recognize the need for continued education after

they had once been licensed to practice. It is encouraging that, in this youthful period of school administration as a profession, a considerable fraction of leading administrators periodically participate in some form of in-service education, including both systematic university study and also work conferences, informal study groups, and the like.

That these seven achievements in the development of effective programs for the education of school administrators are substantial and significant is obvious, and they are not to be underrated because we still face some unsolved problems. We want to build on these accomplishments, since they are constructive and substantial aspects of effective programs of training for administrators; but, if we are to improve work in this field, we must also face some of the serious shortcomings. I should like to mention eight of them.

SHORTCOMINGS IN PREPARATION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

The first weakness in the training of educational administrators is the shortage of high-grade candidates for training. Too few of the most able young people are going into the field of educational administration. Persons highly intelligent, with strong social motivation and with a broad general education, should be found at all levels of administrative positions in education. Actually there are still many cases in which the administrator is selected for his personal charm, his political acceptability, or for some

other characteristic irrelevant to the qualities demanded for high-class work. In many cases, however, the failure of boards of education to appoint able persons to administrative positions is due to the shortage of such people who are being trained, or have been trained, for administrative work. Clearly, this problem must be solved before we can be satisfied with the preparation of school administrators.

A second weakness in the preparation of school administrators is indicated by the fact that a considerable fraction of school executives lack adequate understanding of the social world in which they operate. They do not view the school in terms of its broad social responsibilities. They do not understand the social evolution and revolution that is taking place as a result of industrialism. They do not see clearly the basic economics on which education is based. They do not understand the social structure and social forces which play so powerfully upon the school and which the school must also influence in order to promote the high ends of a good society.

A third weakness of present training programs in school administration is evidenced by the large number of administrators who have no consistent set of educational goals by which to guide their work. Since the major task of administration is to shape programs so as to achieve educational ends most effectively, the importance of the administrator's having a clear conception of these educational ends is obvious. They are his guiding lodestar. He

needs to make constant reference to them in making decisions and in planning. Yet too few administrators have a carefully formulated conception of educational goals. In fact, a consistent, well-unified educational philosophy is rare among administrators. As a result, many of them become engrossed in details or in matters, like business administration or public relations, that are only means to an end; or they encourage various parts of the school to carry on activities which are so inconsistent that the work of one part of the school cancels the work of another. The school administrator is not a clerk or a publicist. He is not a businessman. He is not primarily concerned with material goods. He is an educator, whose primary function is to see that good education takes place. This objective demands a broad and clear-cut educational view.

A fourth weakness in much of the training of school administrators is evidenced by the lack on the part of many of them of a rationale for educational processes; that is, a conception of the means involved and of the techniques to be used in major educational tasks, such as curriculum construction, evaluation, and pupil guidance. The administrator is not responsible for carrying on each of the detailed steps in educational planning and execution, but he must understand the general procedures by which these steps are to be carried out. He must, in other words, have a rationale for the various important educational operations. He needs to know the proce-

dures involved in curriculum construction. He needs to understand the principles basic to effective instruction. He needs to see the place of evaluation and how an evaluation program is developed. He needs to understand the major factors that teachers will have to know about children if the teachers are to guide the children effectively. He needs to know also the general principles that must be operative in an effective guidance program. Unfortunately, too many administrators either neglect these educational matters or concentrate on detailed information about specific courses of study and specific instructional and guidance practices, rather than developing a comprehensive rationale for the operation of these educational programs.

A fifth major weakness in the present training programs of educational administrators is the failure to provide an adequate understanding of human relations and human development. Since the administrator has major responsibility in the selection and guidance of teachers and in stimulating their in-service education, he needs to have an understanding of teachers as persons. He needs to know more about the principles underlying personal and social relations. The vast field of knowledge which has been accumulated under the general title of "human development," representing biology, psychology, anthropology, sociology, ethics, and other specific fields, has thrown light on the values, the motivations, the actions, the problems of human beings. Although an admin-

istrator could not be expected to be a student of human development, he does need to understand some of the basic concepts and principles if he is to operate effectively in connection with his personnel responsibilities and also if he is to be more effective in his community relations.

A sixth common weakness in the training of educational administrators is the failure to provide an adequate bridge between theory and practice. Practice represents what is now being done in school administration. It involves details of operation, almost infinite in number and manifold in type. Theory, on the other hand, is concerned with developing intelligible unity from these multitudinous and heterogeneous activities. Theory seeks to organize, to interpret, and to give direction to the practice of school administration. Practice, apart from theory, is without purpose, is confusing and defeating. Theory, apart from practice, has no realities to explain and interpret and no anchors against which to check the soundness of concept and to give boundary to speculation. The improvement of educational administration demands continued connection between theory and practice, so that each may be improved by the other and both may make, through combination, an important contribution to effective administration.

A seventh shortcoming in current programs for the education of administrators is provincialism—educational provincialism. This is evidenced by the considerable number of school ad-

ministrators who have a sort of totalitarian view toward all activities relating to children and youth. For example, if health services are needed by school children, these administrators wish to control health services. Many of them want to control all extra-curriculum activities that have educational potentialities, such as the 4-H clubs, the Boy Scouts, and the Girl Reserves. They want to be separated from other arms of government, to live and work on an educational island isolated from the other streams of community activity. In the minds of many administrators, education is something that goes on only in the school or under school direction. They recognize no responsibility for co-ordinating the school's educational program with the educational program of the rest of the community and, correspondingly, no responsibility for co-ordinating the work of the school with other socially significant activities of the community.

Finally, may I mention a shortcoming which does not affect the majority of administrators but still exists in too many cases. That is the lack of certain essential personal qualities demanded for effective administration. The administrator is responsible for decisions. In many cases he is the final court of appeal when controversy develops. He must, then, possess courage to stand firm as well as wisdom to make right decisions. Furthermore, the school administrator must have personal integrity. The staff and the public must know that honesty, justice,

and fair dealing can always be had in the office of the educational administrator. Without these qualities of courage, wisdom, and personal integrity the training of the school administrator will come to naught. In so far as those who train administrators are responsible for their selection and guidance, such personal qualities must be considered in the selection and guidance of persons who are candidates for work in school administration.

AN OUTLINE FOR FUTURE PROGRESS

Our analysis thus far has dealt with the present achievements in educating school administrators and the weaknesses still to be found. Our problem is how to overcome these shortcomings and satisfactorily continue the achievements already reached. The only possibility of achieving all that is demanded in the education of administrators is through the selection of very able persons for training and the development of a more efficient use of all possible resources in the training program.

In improving the selection of persons to be given training for educational administration, at least three criteria should be given consideration: intelligence, social motivation, and a broad general education. Intelligence of a high order is necessary because the complexity of administration demands the ability to generalize, the ability to apply principles to changing conditions, and the ability to meet new problems as they arise. Social motivation is essential because the school

administrator is paid much less than persons with comparable training and competence with whom he comes into contact in the community, and he will be tempted to leave the profession or to dabble in investments and other time-consuming operations irrelevant to education unless he is motivated by a high social purpose and cares deeply about improving the education of young people in his community. A broad general education is necessary because the administrator is a citizen of the community and one whose views on civic matters are commonly sought. He must, therefore, be as well prepared to discharge the functions of citizenship as is any member of his community. Furthermore, his responsibilities as leader of the school require a broad view of the society in which he operates.

It is not easy to find persons high in these three qualities. The hope of getting them in sufficient numbers lies largely in having both school systems and universities on the lookout for persons who meet these qualifications and in encouraging them to enter the profession. Instead of waiting for students to come to their doors for training in administration, departments of education of universities need to make an active search for promising candidates. School staffs also need to watch for potential administrators and bring them to the attention of universities and of employing officers.

The effective use of all resources in the training of administrators requires not only that training be done on the

job and in universities but also that there be an efficient use of each type of resource. We need to see more clearly what role on-the-job training may serve and what role university education can play.

The function of university training is to provide the concepts and principles by which the minutiae of practical work can be organized into a coherent and unified picture so that the administrator may see the school as a whole and the various relationships of the parts in the operation of the whole. The function of university training is not primarily to acquaint the student with a great mass of information about administration. Obviously the student needs some information, as well as practical experience, in order to have the material which is to be organized and interpreted in this unified, conceptual structure which university work builds. However, a large number of the facts available about administration can be acquired as the student needs them, and thus time can be saved for broader university training. The primary functions of practical experience are to provide the problems and items of information which are to be organized and interpreted through theory and to provide a testing-ground against which the student checks his concepts and principles to see if they are in harmony with reality and thus realistically explain and interpret educational administration. Practice also provides an opportunity for the student to gain skill in applying principles to new situations and in meeting new

problems as they arise. This view of the distinction between university work and practical experience indicates the importance of both in the education of the administrator. It reduces the responsibility placed upon the university for developing specific skills or for giving an encyclopedic body of facts, while it increases the university's responsibility for developing a clear conception of educational purpose, an understanding of basic principles in the several social fields, as well as in psychology and education. At the same time it emphasizes the importance of a unified concept structure by which the school administrator is able to interpret the range of problems and operations that he meets.

To provide an efficient combination of practical experience and university work in educating school administrators, the university should assume that a candidate for work in school administration will have had some teaching experience and some contact with schools and communities before he undertakes university work in administration. It is also necessary to arrange for a comprehensive diagnostic procedure early in the candidate's training—a procedure that will establish his level of competence in general education, his background of practical experience, his social understanding, his understanding of human development, and the adequacy of his equipment in education. On the basis of this diagnosis, an individual program for each candidate should be outlined to

serve as a guide for his further preparation both within the university and on the job. Periodically, this individual program can be modified on the basis of additional appraisals as the student moves along on the course outlined.

The weakness in training implied by the lack of adequate social understanding indicates that relevant education in the social sciences should make up a larger component of university training than has heretofore been provided. If the administrator is to give direction to the school, which is one of the major social institutions in the modern world, he needs to have an adequate conception of the social order in which he lives and works. This understanding can best be attained through courses organized in terms of social science as a whole, rather than through courses which examine economic problems separately from political problems or social problems. Some school administrators, who have taken work in the social sciences while they were preparing for school administration, have pointed out the difficulty of seeing clearly the implications of social-science concepts and methods in relation to the school and the work of the school administrator.

The solution is not to eliminate training in the social sciences or to set up an educational-sociology or an educational-economics course. It is rather to have, during each year of the administrator's training, a seminar conducted by one or more members of the staff of the department of education—

a seminar devoted to examining the implications of the ideas and methods gained in other fields as they relate to problems of education and, more particularly, to the work of administration. In similar fashion, I would urge that students of school administration get a broader training in the field of human development, with special emphasis on understanding of human relations, human motivation, and human behavior. Again, this ought not to be taught in a separate course entitled "Human Development for the School Administrator," thus limiting the administrator's contact to persons in his own field and encouraging a truncated or distorted version of important principles of human development. Rather, in this training the prospective administrator should take courses in the several university departments and look to the seminar carried on in the education department for aid in relating these fields to the functions of administration.

The university department of education also has the responsibility of helping the prospective school administrator develop a consistent set of educational goals by which to guide his work. Work in educational philosophy, whether it carries that title or not, is an essential aspect of the work to be provided for administrators, who are continually responsible for formulating and clarifying an educational philosophy adequate to guide the operations of schools. The department of education also has the responsibility of providing directly the courses de-

signed to help prospective administrators develop a rationale for educational processes. Basic courses in curriculum and instruction should give him an understanding of the procedures involved in curriculum construction and the principles basic to effective instruction. As mentioned previously, courses in child development or educational psychology are essential. Such courses in education are not to be designed solely for educational administrators but should provide an opportunity for all interested students of education to study, to discuss, and to work with problems together in these fields. Again, it becomes the function of the seminar in administration, paralleling work in other educational courses, to provide opportunity for students of administration to bring together these various educational principles and concepts in terms of their implications for the school administrator.

To provide a more adequate bridge between theory and practice, I should strongly recommend at least a year of intern experience in administrative activities, paralleled by a seminar devoted primarily to interpretation of practical experience in terms of educational theory and to conscious attempts to utilize theory to explain practice, and practice to test the meaning and limitations of theory. After a year or so of internship, the prospective school administrator may want to spend several years on the job; but within a span of four or five years the student of administration

should devote some of his time and energy to the systematic study of an important problem in administration.

This study is beyond the level of internship. It is not conducted to provide a clearer interpretation of contemporary practice or a concrete application of accepted theory. The study I have in mind is an opportunity for creative attack upon a significant unsolved problem in the field of educational administration. The problem should grow out of the work of the administrator, but it should be attacked upon a level of sufficient generality to make the results of value in a better understanding of educational administration, rather than simply to provide an immediate solution to the practical problem in a particular school. This level of intellectual contribution may not be reached, perhaps, by all who take advantage of university work in administration, but it should represent a goal toward which a considerable number will move and an intellectual task well within the capabilities of the kind of persons to be encouraged to come into school administration.

The university department of education also bears a responsibility, in co-operation with school systems, to provide opportunities for continued in-service education of administrative personnel through co-operative surveys, workshops, educational conferences, informal study groups, systematic courses on a mature level, and other devices that may be developed from time to time. Thus the university department of education is viewed

as having responsibility for co-ordinating both pre-service and in-service education of administrators, but it is not conceived as the sole resource for providing instruction and training. Perhaps we may summarize this conception of the role of the department of education by noting its place in the several stages of the education of the school administrator:

1. The department of education, together with leading school administrators, actively seeks outstanding candidates who are to be encouraged to go into the field of administration.

2. The department of education sets standards relating to the qualifications of persons to be admitted to the university program in the training of school administrators.

3. The department of education administers a diagnostic procedure at the time of admission, or early in the training program, to identify each candidate's needs for further training and to serve as a basis for planning an individual program of education.

4. The department of education advises candidates to take relevant work in the several social sciences and in human development, but the department does not offer the work itself. It does, however, provide a parallel seminar to give opportunity for the study of the implications of the concepts and principles in the several social sciences and in human development as they relate to the work of the school administrator.

5. The department of education provides courses in philosophy of education, in curriculum and instruction, in child development, and in educational psychology, although these courses are not designed solely for prospective administrators. During the period of time that students are taking this work in the department of education, the department provides, again, a parallel seminar for school administrators to consider

the implications of these educational concepts and procedures as they relate to administration.

6. Assuming that a student of educational administration has previously had teaching experience and considerable contact with schools and communities, the department of education provides early in his training a basic course in educational administration, which deals particularly with the functions of administration and the types of problems with which administrators must cope. Thereafter, most, if not all, of the work specifically in administration would be of the seminar type providing opportunities for the interpretation of work in other fields or the interpretation of practical experience, or of the type that provides for instruction in the methods of attacking significant problems in school administration.

This role places the department in a responsible position with reference to the selection of persons to train in administration and with reference to the integration and guidance of work of a much broader nature than is commonly recommended for this field. The additional time devoted to courses in other fields is obtained from two sources, namely, the elimination of a number of administration courses which outline facts and techniques that can be obtained through reading or practical experience, or both, and the reduction in the number of required courses in special educational fields. This proposed educational program for administrators may be criticized on the ground that it does not provide sufficient depth and specialization in administration. However, somewhat analogous programs in other fields indicate that the continu-

ous integration of work in the social sciences, in human development, and in other aspects of education, in terms of their implications for theory and practice of administration, will result in a greater depth and competence in a special field than the same amount of time devoted to specialized courses would provide. Furthermore, the internship, paralleled by the interpretative seminar, should not only build a closer bridge between theory and practice but also give a greater command of administrative wisdom and competence than is provided by the same time devoted to theory and practice in isolation from each other.

It is time for significant experimentation in the education of school administrators. The postwar period provides an unparalleled opportunity for the improvement of American education. In any effort for improvement, the school administrator is a crucial figure. His is a broad and complex job. He requires broader training, greater vision, increased competence. The only practical solution to the problem of training for such a complex profession is to use every available resource. If the department of education is to make a maximum contribution to the training of school administrators, it must be through the co-ordination of job experience and of education provided by various university departments and by the offering of more relevant training in the field of education itself. Accomplishing this task is a challenge to university departments of education.

EDUCATION FOR APPRECIATION VERSUS EDUCATION FOR EFFICIENCY

HAROLD SAXE TUTTLE
City College of the City of New York

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MOST promising among the newer trends in American education is that of supplementing instruction, by one means or another, with conscious cultivation of attitudes and interests. The tendency has arisen out of a growing sense of the inadequacy of purely intellectual training. It is reinforced by the assurance of psychologists that the education of interests and attitudes is altogether feasible. In many respects the movement is the most significant in recent educational history.

MATERIALISM

Our attempts to make the schools practical have resulted in making them too materialistic, not necessarily in their philosophy, but in their emphasis. The most conspicuous illustration of this emphasis is found in the business world. Education is related to business to an increasing degree. More and more commercial courses are being offered, and they are being offered earlier in the program of secondary education. Their emphasis is on efficiency. Efficiency is a means of *getting* things rather than of *enjoying* them after they have been secured. Our arithmetic in the early grades has been influenced by exact counts of

numbers of transactions involving different mathematical processes. Geography has been influenced by tabulations of references in newspapers and magazine articles. Civics has been modified by an analysis of the content of political party platforms. The tool subjects themselves are likewise primarily means of efficiency. In these ways the child's *attention is kept on the things* that civilization makes available. The school does not deny that materials are to be judged by their contribution to human happiness. That the meaning which these things give to life is their final justification is not questioned. Indeed it would be readily acknowledged. The point is that emphasis is thrown upon the things.

Not only is the emphasis upon the material aspects of civilization, but, in the second place, the method of approach is analytical. What the school offers (the pupil is bound to say to himself) is available through purely intellectual processes. The sentiments may have their place in story-books but education is intellectual, and sentiment must be cast aside when it comes to the really important things in life; for the school is at once the

central aspect of the growing child's life and the test by which the relative importance of experiences is determined.

The unfortunate emphasis upon these two factors, the material aspects of civilization and the intellectual nature of education, is not merely one of relative amounts. Nor is it merely proportionate to the overemphasis upon things and processes as against appreciations and satisfactions. It is far more serious than that. The very separation of knowledge-getting from attitude-training blocks the effectiveness of any efforts in the latter direction. By the laws of association, familiar to every educator, things that are learned together become a part of a single total experience. If appreciations are to be cultivated, they must be cultivated as a part of the same process that develops efficiency. It is impossible to cultivate appreciation as a separate and subsequent process. Even if an independent program of cultivating appreciations could be devised and made practical as a supplement to training for success, the results of two separate programs would be immeasurably less than the results of the two integrated into one.

THE SCHOOL'S STRATEGIC POSITION

Whatever the learner is to hold as a unified experience must be taught as a single experience. If our schools are to teach tool subjects and skills and knowledge, they must, at the same time, and as a part of the total process, train the pupil in the apprecia-

tion of those values which efficiency serves to secure. Our one-sided emphasis has tended toward the assumption that the things which efficiency secures are the essential values in life. Education for appreciation along with education for efficiency is necessary if we are to restore a wholesome balance of values.

The major problems of civilization today have, to a large extent, grown out of false standards of progress as revealed in our educational emphasis. This is not an assertion that our schools are wholly responsible for our social problems, but rather that the same emphasis appears in our school program that has also been incorporated in all our social thinking. The results are seen in a lopsided emphasis on industrial values.

How shall these problems be solved? Political action is not solving them. The political emancipation of the Negro, attempted by amendment of the Federal Constitution over two generations ago, has never been actually accomplished. The prohibition amendment in its decade of operation did not protect youth from temptation. State laws against stealing have not made property safe, nor have the laws against slander protected the reputation of innocent citizens. The racketeer game goes on in spite of ample legislation. Prison terms for embezzlers do not restore the widow's meager savings, nor capital punishment the life of the homicide victim.

That such laws are necessary the sociologist and the educator are the

first to recognize; for the stage is set to make obedience easier as rapidly as the public is educated to the value of the ideal implied by the law. But the public must be educated. There is no substitute, and the existence of laws does not in itself furnish such education. Fear of punishment does not create the desire to conform. The inner motive must be cultivated. Of all agencies the school is best adapted to build up appreciation of the values which make wholesome social conduct natural and welcome. Not until the ideal toward which the law points becomes the ideal which the individual seeks has society adequate protection. The school alone is in a position to cultivate such interests and attitudes as will assure self-control. The school is capable of a degree of unified leadership not found in any other single group or organization. While we have something more than forty-eight systems of education in which the state is supreme and final, we have an educational consciousness that permits a wholesome degree of unity of action.

One can hardly analyze the contribution of John Dewey during the past five decades without realizing the extent to which the school can be influenced by central leadership. National conferences, national organization, periodicals that enjoy a nation-wide circulation, and even local journals that reflect national movements, publishers of textbooks with nation-wide sales—all these make possible the rapid propagation of ideals and standards in

education. The school therefore seems to be the most readily available agency for social change.

ATTITUDE-TRAINING

The school, indeed, has already proved its capacity for effectiveness in the special field of training appreciations since the gradual introduction of the fine arts into the curriculum. We are now cultivating in our schools an appreciation of music. We are offering successful training in the appreciation of art. For a long while some teachers, and recently an increasing number, have been training youth in the appreciation of literature. The recent discovery of the possibilities of extra-curriculum activities has carried with it notable increases in appreciation in dramatics and journalism and civics. We can educate attitudes.

But we are falling far short of our opportunities. The question is not one of what educators know about the laws of attitude-training, but rather one of rival emphasis. How much space is given in our books on methods to this matter of training appreciation? The relative space in the books and the relative time in teacher-training classes is the strongest argument for a reanalysis of the field of aims and methods from a social point of view.

Not only is the school capable of giving training in appreciation; it is able to give such training in conjunction with its teaching of facts and skills. The two can be combined into

an integral program. Several years ago Bode optimistically put the ideal in the present tense:

In the elementary school we make the three R's cultural subjects by teaching them in such a way as to cultivate certain appreciations. For a long time now we have been moving toward the view that the practical and the cultural must be combined in something which we call "social" education.¹

However slowly we may be "moving," and however few teachers at present succeed in "making the three R's cultural," at least here is evidence that some leading educators hold the ideal not only attractive but feasible. That the school is in a position to provide such a combination of training is evident from the references to dramatics and other extra-curriculum activities. The acquisition of skill and the study of practical facts do not preclude the cultivation of higher capacity to enjoy the fruits of such knowledge and skill. The mastery of grammar and vocabulary does not hinder the enjoyment of refined conversation. Indeed there is no better motive for efficiency than a keen enjoyment of its products.

Two rejoinders have been made to the suggestion that the school give more emphasis to attitude-training. One is that appreciation is not something to be taught in a vacuum; it has no existence in itself. "Appreciate" must not be thought of as an intransitive verb; there must always be an

object. These statements are eminent-ly and significantly true, but they are not denied even by implication in the emphasis here commended. In every age, in every generation, in every moment, indeed, those who are capable of training others in appreciation, themselves possess a content for that appreciation.

The child, likewise, is living in an environment of materials, an environment whose content he is just learning to appreciate. Whatever values he acquires will be acquired with reference to the materials of his environment. He is living, for example, in an economic order where the meaning of wealth is constantly pressing in against his consciousness. So long as his attention is focused upon the fact of wealth, his energies will be directed toward attaining wealth. *Only as his attention is focused upon the richest satisfactions to which wealth can be dedicated is there hope of diverting his interest from the quest of materials.*

A second thought must make it equally evident that the content is present for training in appreciation of beauty or of freedom or of knowledge. In every phase of life the child is living in a content adequate for the training of its own appreciation. If he does not receive such training, the content is destined to dominate his thinking. If he does, his appreciation, because of the nature of the affective life, can be extended to future content of the same kind.

The significance of training in ap-

¹ Boyd H. Bode, *Modern Educational Theories*, p. 29. New York: Macmillan Co., 1927.

preciation of values is intensified by the fact that such training releases one from the form through which the values were acquired. One can hardly give serious thought to our present civilization without noting the slavery to forms when progress is tested by things. Traditionalism under the rationalized name of conservation rebels at changes even of the most superficial sort. The reason is clear to all who will analyze social processes. The *things* through which satisfaction was once found have become so much the objects of attention that the satisfactions have become identified with the mediating materials.

A second objection which seems formidable proves less serious in the light of history. Who is to determine the media by which appreciations are to be cultivated? Perhaps the surest answer is the counter question: Who should determine the materials by which efficiency is now cultivated? Both are questions of curriculum. Of course, the second question does not remove the first; in the light of the mess we have made of our whole curriculum problem, perhaps it raises difficulties rather than resolves them. But the obvious fact is that, whatever our aim in education, whatever our emphasis, whatever methods be employed, the curriculum must be determined arbitrarily by some designated individuals.

CURRICULUM SELECTION

It may be more difficult to select a curriculum which will effectively culti-

vate appreciation of the great values in civilization than to select one which will produce efficiency; but the very difficulty may lead to more careful analysis than has seemed necessary in determining a curriculum for knowledge and skill. There is no more arbitrariness in the selection of one than of the other. Moreover, it is hardly worthy of this age of science to insist that the task is impossible. If we are convinced that our major need is a curriculum by means of which training can be given in the appreciation of values, then, of course, we shall proceed to create such a curriculum.

Some fear may be felt that for the planning of curriculums for mass education not enough persons who combine high art and skills in education could be found, so that worthy standards could be maintained. The danger that the selection may result in cultivating appreciation of the mediocre rather than of the ideal is hardly as serious, for example, as the danger that under our present program the social studies will be taught through a content tending to maintain the *status quo* in our highly nationalistic and individualistic civilization.

While sufficient evidence has been offered to indicate the feasibility of attitude-training, still it is not logical to take for granted that such training can necessarily be made to apply alike, and without question, to all fields of human appreciation.

Human fellowship may serve as an example. Is it merely the outgrowth of innate interests? Or is it susceptible of

training? Any normal individual finds it unpleasant to be separated from the company of his kind, but the content and direction of the communication depend upon the training one receives. The spontaneous comments of children indicate how little concern for the feelings of others one has until that concern has been cultivated. In the old saying that children and fools always tell the truth there was emphasis on the differences between trained and untrained communication. Tact and refinement in conversation are not characteristic of the very young. Society clearly has high faith in the possibility of refining the tastes of children in matters of social contact. Thoughtlessness, crudeness, criticism, and unkindness can be definitely removed by training. Considerateness and good will in human fellowship are practicable aims, worthy of the best efforts of the school.

One might accept the idea that freedom—to select another social value—grows out of an innate drive without agreeing that it is susceptible of education; yet the forms and directions of human efforts toward escape from servitude indicate clearly the influence of discipline. There is little indication of distinction between liberty and license except where educational agencies have been at work. Training can transform the innate opposition to suppression into a series of attitudes which will oppose undemocratic conduct of every sort.

In the field of aesthetic enjoyment there is no question as to the possibili-

ties of training. If there were question, the success of such slight efforts as have been made thus far in the public-school courses in art and music, and for a long time in literature, should remove all doubts.

Play is so spontaneous that it might at first seem quite impossible for training to change one's attitude toward it; yet ample evidence is available to show that training does modify play attitudes. After both war periods, throngs of European children were reported to have lost all sense of joy and had to be trained in the art of play. Many a man whose vocation has for a period of years prevented opportunity for spontaneous play confesses that he has lost all interest in anything but his work.

The traditional dislike of children for school might easily lead one to believe that there is inherently something distasteful about learning. The opposite, however, is the case. Mental activity is satisfying and pleasurable under normal circumstances; every field of mastery can be made an object of as satisfying effort as is the crossword puzzle or the construction of a radio set. There is a strange inconsistency between our impatience with children's questions and our all but universal dependence on external motives for children's learning. It was said of President William Rainey Harper that he taught Hebrew as a series of thrilling adventures. Every field of human knowledge is potentially just that. The thrill of mental discovery may be as great a value in the

study of some subjects as any utilitarian outcome of the study, and increasingly so as children are given cumulative experiences of thrill in mental aggressiveness.

ALTRUISM

With reference to altruism, the highest of social attainments, the most significant question is this: What bearing has its cultivation upon the increase of other capacities? Such a question calls not for a paragraph but for a book. Every serious analysis of civilization has recognized, explicitly or implicitly, that the very structure of human society is basically dependent upon altruism.

Altruism refers not to the form of the act but to the attitude toward it. It involves a genuine satisfaction in the happiness of others. Without such satisfactions there is no assurance, indeed there is little possibility, of continued conduct which makes for the enrichment of other lives. Civilization depends upon altruism.

Every form of satisfaction involved in a better civilization is dependent on the altruism of one's fellows. Added to the appreciation of fellowship and communication, it means not merely

observing social amenities but finding genuine joy in the pleasures others receive through fellowship. Freedom can hardly be loved without some thrill over the liberation of others. When altruism combines with aesthetic appreciation it means the desire to enrich one's fellows by means of beauty and harmony. In so far as play cultivates good sportsmanship, it is but cultivating the desire for the happiness of one's playmates. Wealth, when controlled by the spirit of good will, is dedicated to the happiness of society. Pedantry in one's intellectual attainments is hardly compatible with the spirit of concern for others.

Thus altruism is seen not merely as one, not merely as the highest, of the capacities for the enrichment of life; rather it is the central principle which radiates out into all others and multiplies the satisfactions they yield to both giver and receiver.

That the school can cultivate appreciation of the spiritual values which alone have significance for the highest civilization is no longer open to question. That the extension of its services to include that function would incomparably enrich civilization is being recognized by an increasing number of educators.

PROBLEMS CONFRONTING EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS IN DEALING WITH VETERANS

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TO SAY that educational institutions face many problems in dealing with veterans is merely to state a misleading generality. The statement is a generality because "many" could mean any number and any kinds of problems. The statement is misleading because the word "problem" used in connection with veterans may add to the already exaggerated tendency to regard veterans themselves as problems. For purposes of this discussion, the veterans served by educational institutions will be regarded as normal students, except for the differences caused by such factors as a previously interrupted educational program, greater maturity, and the fact that many of them have assumed family responsibilities not commonly found among students.

Furthermore, the subject must be limited by omitting certain problems. Little would be gained by devoting this entire article to an enumeration of the endless considerations that arise as schools attempt to provide maximum service to veterans. Accordingly, discussion of the task of processing properly all papers for veterans attending school on subsidy

and the matter of school facilities, including housing, which are necessary for accommodating the large number of veterans attending educational institutions, will be omitted.

One of the best ways of focusing attention on some of the other problems relating to veterans may be to ask the question: What responsibilities do schools, whether public or private, secondary or collegiate, have toward the veteran? They have at least two very apparent responsibilities, each of which gives rise to educational problems. One responsibility is that of taking the veteran from the point at which we find him, educationally speaking, and of expediting the achievement of his goals as quickly as is educationally sound. The other responsibility is that of providing a counseling service that will really assist the veteran in his educational, vocational, and personal adjustments. It will now be our purpose to look rather closely at the problems that arise in the attempt to discharge the first responsibility and to mention briefly some of the issues involved in the provision of the counseling service.

ACHIEVING EDUCATIONAL GOALS

The duty of taking the veteran from the point at which we find him and helping him to progress at a maximum rate brings up different questions to different types of institutions. Nevertheless, most institutions must sooner or later face the questions centering in the following four issues.

Tests for credits and admission.—The first of these is the use of tests for credit and admission purposes. Although the use of tests for admission and level placement has been increasing rapidly for several years, the practice of using them for credit purposes is relatively new. This use has arisen out of the development by the United States Armed Forces Institute of tests of general educational development and progress in subject areas. Being somewhat revolutionary in purpose, the general educational development tests were received with mixed opinions—and by some people with mixed emotions! Since the idea of using tests for credit and admission is more revolutionary at the high-school level than at the college level, it is surprising that these appear to be used more commonly by high schools than by colleges.

Let us consider some of the issues in connection with the high-school form of the general educational development tests. Opponents of the tests claim that no test, however good and regardless of the norms established for it, can substitute adequately for high-school experience. They point out the

necessity for specific pre-professional subjects, the benefits of content materials, and the values in extra-curriculum activities. They say that the tests are too easy, and, in proof of this statement, they relate experiences of veterans who were failures in school before going into service but who, upon returning, score high on the tests. They doubt the extent to which diplomas granted on the basis of the tests will be accepted by higher institutions. They raise the question of where the practice will end, of whether or not it might be extended to *all* students so that high-school diplomas would be granted to students just as soon as they were able to score sufficiently high on the tests.

These questions cannot and should not be passed off lightly. They represent the thinking of many seasoned secondary-school administrators. On the other hand, they should be viewed from an over-all basis. Fortunately, policies are beginning to take shape. Colleges are giving recognition to the tests, but their policies vary from mere admittance on the basis of a high-school diploma earned by the tests to a careful consideration of the scores made on each of the five test areas, with placement in the college made accordingly. In fact, those colleges and universities that have definite academic standards for admission would have much to gain by following the practice that certain of them have already established, whereby the general educational development test

scores are used as a basis for admission in the same way that school marks are used. Such a practice places a premium on high test scores and is in line with the trend of college qualifying examinations. On the other hand, veterans whose scores are not sufficiently high to warrant admission to college will have received a diploma just the same as students with lower class marks.

Studies are also being made to reveal the frequency with which veterans who take the tests fail to qualify for a diploma. For example, in Chicago, where all tests are administered by the director of examinations for the City Junior College, more than 4,000 veterans have taken the tests since June, 1945. An analysis of the scores shows that 630 veterans failed to make a score of 35 or better on one or more of the tests. Of these 630 veterans, however, 126 qualified for a diploma by making an average score of 45 or better, thus reducing the number of net failures to 504, or 12.6 per cent of the total. This percentage becomes significant when it is recalled that the same tests, when given to a representative sample of individual high-school graduates all over the country, showed a net failure of 20 per cent. Additional interesting data, indicating that veterans tend to do better on the tests than do average high-school graduates, are found by comparing the medians of Chicago veterans on each of the five tests to the arbitrary average score of 50 used

in establishing the norms when the test was standardized. Medians on the tests made by the 4,000 veterans tested in Chicago are:

English expression.....	45
Social studies.....	54
Natural sciences.....	56
Literary materials.....	53
Mathematics.....	52

Thus Chicago veterans rank above the average of high-school graduates in all the tests except the one on English expression. Information of this kind is helpful in establishing the fact that, as far as the tests go in measuring comparability of high-school graduates and veterans, it is an error to say that the tests are too easy.

Since recent surveys indicate that increasing numbers of secondary schools all over the country are using the tests as a basis for a diploma or a certificate of equivalency, it appears that the practice is becoming firmly established. We might ask, then: "What is the problem? Why discuss a prevailing practice?"

The problem grows out of the fact that, having accepted this device to expedite a veteran's progress, we have in our hands a technique which possesses many potentialities but which must be carefully controlled and observed. Many veterans can profit greatly from its use, but others would do better to secure their diplomas by more traditional methods. We should not be too quick either to condemn or to praise the practice. It offers an extremely fertile field for later studies to

discover the subsequent progress of veterans who secure diplomas by means of the tests. Its future will undoubtedly depend on what is learned by objective appraisals.

Much the same can be said for the use of the college form of the tests. The questions of when credit should be allowed, how to gear the tests to specific college subjects, and how much credit to give are only indicative of the many issues that arise in colleges. Again, our minds should be kept open on the subject, and some careful experimentation should be carried on. The fact that it is good for one student to secure credit by this method does not necessarily mean that the practice answers the needs of another student. The difference in purpose and nature between these tests and the many comprehensive tests in college subjects must be remembered. The general educational development tests are not measurements of specific course content, as are comprehensive examinations, but instead are an index to the student's ability to read, interpret, and evaluate materials in the four fields covered by the tests.

Despite all the arguments about, and the problems involved in the use of, the general educational development tests at either the high-school or the college level, we must admit that these tests, when wisely used, implement the progress of men and women who need it most and provide a scientific tool which helps educational institutions discharge more wisely that

all-important function of expediting a veteran's progress.

Evaluating military training.—The second issue, the evaluation of credit for military training and experience, presents a problem, not only in terms of time and difficulty, but also in terms of the amount of credit that is best for the student. Fortunately, the American Council on Education has published a guide¹ which, together with fairly accurate and complete military papers, has gone far toward simplifying the process of evaluation, although the problems of dovetailing military credit with school courses, entering proof of service training in the record, and similar questions still exist. These, however, are tangible problems and are not insurmountable.

The more difficult and intangible consideration is the extent to which students should desire and obtain credit for military training and experience. Many veterans, particularly those at the college level, are inclined to go slowly in acquiring credit for courses that they have not taken. They feel that they do not wish to jeopardize their chances of success in future courses that are dependent on subjects which they have not studied. A related problem is found in the question of physical education. If any credit for basic training is given, it is likely to be for physical education, and the veteran thus would be excused from activities in this area. Yet,

¹ *Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services.* Washington: American Council on Education, 1944.

from a health standpoint, continued physical activity is very important. From these examples it can be seen that good individual counseling is needed to work out the best solution to the credit problem.

Acceleration.—The third problem is the matter of acceleration. If the veteran is to progress at a rapid yet sound rate from the point at which we find him to the point which he has set for his goal, the question of acceleration is bound to arise. Usually it is not a question of whether or not to accelerate but of how much and how. Naturally, the recognition of general educational development tests and the giving of credit for military experience are forms of acceleration, but there are other plans, both formal and informal, that are being followed.

The practice of formal acceleration seems most prevalent, and perhaps most logical, at the high-school level. Veterans who make up their high-school work by the credit method are likely to be considerably older and better able to progress rapidly than are the youth of average high-school age. Among the many plans for acceleration is the one followed by the Chicago public schools, wherein several high-school centers have been established for veterans only. In these centers the men pursue the subjects which they need for graduation on a tutorial basis at their own rate of speed. Regular high-school teachers are assigned to work individually with the men. When a veteran and his teacher feel that he is qualified to take

the final examination, he is allowed to do so under the direction of a central examination officer. During the eight months that the plan has been in effect, an average of a thousand veterans has been enrolled in these centers. This figure is testimony to the desire of veterans for acceleration as well as for earning subject credits rather than equivalency standing.

Speeding up work at the college level seems less prevalent and is more difficult. The acceleration of college programs is much more likely to be accomplished through such techniques as carrying heavier loads or pursuing part-time programs for parts of a semester and preparing individually for survey examinations. Whatever the method, the premise still holds that progress should be based on individual ability and that speed should not result in waste. The role of the college in controlling the desire on the part of some veterans to acquire credits at a rate beyond their capacity to profit is not always easy, and it, too, becomes part of the counseling process.

Fusion.—As the fourth problem, we have the fusion of veterans with the other students. Long before the end of the war, educators began to consider this issue. However, from the tenor of most educational meetings, it might have been assumed that most veterans would return maladjusted and that they would work havoc among other students. As nearly everyone working with veterans can testify, these expectations have not been fulfilled. The

faculty of the American University Study Center in Shrivenham, England, which was attended by more than eight thousand men in the European theater of operations, predicted that servicemen would be good students. The high-ranking faculty members of this university, who had had extensive experience with pre-war students, made careful comparisons of both groups of students. One summary paragraph of the report of this comparison reads as follows:

Evidently on matters of general maturity, interest in school work, a down-to-earth realism, willingness to study, critical attitudes, and willingness to consult with teachers personally, these soldier-students impressed their teachers very favorably in comparison with students of similar level in the ordinary college situation. On the other hand, in ability to concentrate on studies, to express ideas clearly in speech or writing, the S.A.U. students were judged less favorably.²

That these predictions hold true is doubtless well known, for the fact that veterans generally make good students has been widely proclaimed. Indicative of the current findings is a statement of President Conant taken from an interesting article about Harvard College veterans, appearing in the June 17 issue of *Life* magazine: "The veterans are the most mature and promising students Harvard has ever had."

The fact that veterans are able to

do good work is, of course, not an answer to all problems. The question of the extent to which veterans blend with other students for the common good of both groups still remains and gives rise to the issue of how far the veteran group should be set aside from the other students. It seems safe to suggest that, at the college level at least, the veteran will feel he is back in regular society if he is treated like every other student and that the other students may profit from the examples set by the veterans. An interesting survey recently was made among the faculty in the three branches of the Chicago Junior College:³ When these faculty members were asked how the presence of veterans in classes (more than fifteen hundred veterans were enrolled in the college branches during the spring semester of 1946) had influenced the attitude or conduct of other students, the majority replied that the veterans had: (1) stimulated a more serious purpose on the part of the other students, (2) promoted greater academic effort, and (3) cut the disciplinary problems of the entire school. On the other hand, there is grave danger that the added maturity and aggressiveness of the veterans may destroy leadership among younger students. The matter of proper balance constitutes an administrative problem and must be watched also by all sponsors of extra-curriculum activities.

² Kimball Young, "What Kind of a Student Will the Veteran Be?" *Educational Record*, XXVII (April, 1946), 171.

³ Unpublished survey.

COUNSELING FOR VETERANS

The second responsibility of educational institutions, that of providing proper counseling service to veterans, raises a number of problems, the importance of which we must not minimize. For example, what facilities and organizational setup serve the veterans best? Should the personnel service rendered the veterans be housed in separate quarters? If so, how can permanent records be fully utilized? If not, how can we be sure that *all* the needs of the veterans will be adequately handled in the regular personnel setup? The questions are not simply answered. Regardless of the answers, it is certain that some special facilities will be needed and that they should provide a tie-in with regular counseling facilities.

In regard to the counseling activity itself, there arises the question: Who make good counselors for veterans? Aside from the many queries pertaining to the G.I. benefits and similar matters, veterans have problems that may be different from those of younger students, such as problems involving marital adjustments, the matter of

resuming school work after a long absence, and physical disabilities. Obviously, not all teachers are fitted to fill the important role of helping the men and women think through such issues. Counselors for veterans, therefore, should be selected carefully, with due regard for training, interest, stability, and military service of their own. There are also other counseling problems, such as the best techniques to be used in helping the veterans attain their goals and the organization of their programs, but these counseling problems differ only slightly from the usual ones. The institution which makes the best combination of counseling and teaching will be the one rendering the greatest service to the veteran.

In summary, may we again indicate that the whole picture has not been covered in this article. Furthermore, answers to all the issues raised have not been given. It is hoped, however, that the spotlight has been directed on some problems and their ramifications that are all-important to administrators and to personnel workers at this crucial time.

PROMOTING SOCIAL UNDERSTANDING IN THE SOCIAL-STUDIES CLASSES

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TEACHERS of today are becoming more and more aware of the real focus of the educative process, namely, the living, growing, human child. The subject matter, formerly venerated to its detailed minutiae, they are relegating to the secondary role of assisting in the fullest development of the student. Our curriculum is but the highway over which we teachers of English, social studies, mathematics, science, etc., lead our boys and girls to the Erewhon of clear vision and social understanding.

Although our schools are dedicated to the well-balanced program of training the head, the hand, and the heart, our youngsters seem to show least growth in the development of desirable social relations. Perhaps this training in social-mindedness appears retarded because as a goal it is far surpassed by achievement in mechanics, skills, interests, and knowledges. Teachers are frequently heard commending their students for scholastic diligence, for originality of expression, and for punctuality of performance. But seldom do we hear praise for helping one's neighbor, for common courtesy, or for discharging a social responsibility. Is the reason for this a lack of awareness on the teachers' part or social immaturity on

the part of the students? Our children reflect the materialism of the age by their eagerness to do a certain job for credits or marks and by their indifference toward the same job when the motive is altruism or social betterment. This materialistic and individualistic nature of the children demands our attention. To sublimate such an attitude and to develop a feeling of sympathy, good will, and co-operation with all people, must always be a primary aim of the democratic school.

A century ago, secondary-school personnel were concerned with preparing young men to enter divinity schools, military academies, and law and medical schools. Today, our students come to school to learn about their complex environment and how to live in it. To the school of yesterday, came boys from families of the same social and economic status—families where a rigorous code of ethics and conduct was taught and adopted early in life, families of distinction where responsibilities of leadership were accepted as a matter of course. To our present schools come students from every socioeconomic level, heterogeneous in mentality, background, attitudes, and emotional stability. What better ideal can we aspire to achieve than to impart to

these formative minds the white hot spark of understanding to fuse this heterogeneity of individualistic attitudes into a common fraternity?

At this point, one may logically ask, "How can we realize such an objective?" I must confess that I don't know the answer. Nor have I found anyone who does. We are all experimenting, hoping that what we are doing will evoke the desired responses. In the social-studies classes teachers use the mediums of courses of study, materials of instruction, and certain patterns of recitations to promote human relations.

Syllabus.—In discussing the social-studies courses given at Brooklyn Technical High School, only those topics that are especially pertinent to our aim will be referred to in this article. For example, the syllabus in Civics I inducts the new students into the life and organization of the high school and develops the concept of school and community citizenship. The boys learn about some of the social aspects of our community, such as the following:

What are the aims of education in a democracy?

Why are good citizens concerned about the problem of racial and religious intolerance?

How can good citizens combat such un-American intolerance?

For what were we fighting?

In the Civics II course the boys gain insight into the structure and functions of our federal and state governments and into the problems of our people in a "sixty-hour world." The

lessons are devoted to such questions as:

What is the composition of the citizenry of the United States?

What are the privileges of citizenship?

What are the duties and responsibilities of citizenship?

How may American citizens themselves endanger American democracy?

How can each of us safeguard our democracy and improve our government?

The term plan in American History I allows time for entire lessons to be devoted to the following topics:

The Races of Mankind

Democracy, the American Way of Life

Social Reform Movements

At the beginning of this course, a unit of nine lessons is devoted to the topic, "Roots of American Democracy." At its conclusion, a unit on "A Nation of Immigrants" stresses lessons on immigration into the United States, the American immigration policy, and "Immigrants All, Americans All."

The American History II course is rich in human-relations instruction. A long unit of thirty lessons on the role of the United States in world affairs traces the current of national feelings and the changes in attitudes toward international co-operation from Washington's time to the recent Paris Conference. Individual lessons are devoted to:

Understanding the United Nations.

What treatment for the conquered nations?

What help for the liberated nations?

In the unit on the Evolution of Economic Democracy, there are lessons on the goals of economic democracy,

the farmer in the twentieth century, and the worker in World War II. The unit on the evolution of political democracy includes lessons on our representative democracy, making democracy efficient, and problems which democracy must solve. The concluding unit, "The American Way in Crisis," provides a lesson on democracy's answer to the challenge of totalitarianism.

Finally, the economics syllabus provides lessons on the consumer's role in fighting inflation, the consumer co-operative movement, the role of the consumer in our democratic society, the place of labor in a democracy, and the goals and problems of the postwar transition period.

Supplementary pamphlets.—In addition to the assignments and class instruction given in these fields, supplementary materials such as the following are used. *The Races of Mankind*,¹ *Footprints of the Trojan Horse*,² *They Got the Blame*,³ the comic-strip version of *They Got the Blame*,⁴ and transcripts of the eight Queens College Forums on the theme "Winning the Peace."⁵

¹ Ruth Benedict and Gene Weltfish, *The Races of Mankind*. Public Affairs Pamphlets, No. 85. New York: Public Affairs Committee, Inc. (30 Rockefeller Plaza), 1943. Pp. 32. \$0.10.

² *Footprints of the Trojan Horse: Some Methods Used by Foreign Agents within the United States*. New York: American Viewpoint, Inc. (122 East Forty-second Street) Pp. 60. \$0.25.

³ Kenneth M. Gould, *They Got the Blame: The Story of Scapegoats in History*. New York: Association Press, 1944. Pp. 64. \$0.25.

⁴ *They Got the Blame: The Story of Scapegoats in History*. Reprinted from *True Comics*. New York: National Conference of Christians and Jews (381 Fourth Avenue). Pp. 4. Free.

Methods.—The social-studies teachers occasionally vary the pattern of their recitations in order to develop more thoroughly the social values of the class meetings. They use the open forum, the round table discussion, the informal debate, the supervised study lesson followed by the socialized recitation, and the dramatization procedure. In such settings students learn by living the democratic way of life, by co-operating and sharing with the group their ideas and findings, and by critical self-evaluation. Without relinquishing control or responsibility, the teacher can plan with the class steering committee the purpose and method of the next week's lessons. Such methods accentuate the co-operative nature of the group activity, reveal the vital significance of the content, and inculcate a sense of social-mindedness.

Movies.—The motion-picture program has also been used to supplement and enrich social-studies instruction and has contributed toward developing a sympathetic understanding of other people. In many respects sound motion pictures are a form of instruction superior to the oral development or supervised study plan. The visual appeal, the colorful background, the enriching details, the sound effects, and the narration or local dialect—all serve to heighten interest and to build social attitudes in our students. No one can doubt that a better civic sense and a more humane

⁵ "Winning the Peace." Transcripts of a weekly radio forum sponsored by Queens College, New York, and broadcast over Station WNYC.

regard for the welfare of one's fellow-man will result from the experience of seeing such films as:

America Can Give It
The Negro Soldier
American Anniversary
Divide and Conquer
America—Yesterday, Today and Tomorrow
You, the People
Valley Town
The Perfect Tribute
Here is China
Americans All
South of the Border with Disney

Posters.—Many teachers firmly believe in the visual, pictorial appeal and thus utilize the values of such dramatic posters as those issued by the Institute for American Democracy. Then, too, children who are gifted with the talent of artistic expression draw or paint posters illustrating bonds of unity among ethnic groups in America.

Extra-curriculum activities.—The clubs sponsored by the social-studies teachers have as one of their major goals the promotion of human relations. During the past year the theme of the meetings of the Historical Society was "Understanding the United Nations." The Current Events Club gives serious thought to social and economic problems of national and international significance. Groups of students have been organized and coached by several teachers to participate in interscholastic forums on vital international problems. Even the Consumers Club is becoming conscious of the psychological factors in

our system of merchandising and consuming, and its members discuss with some degree of wisdom the need for reform.

Teacher personality.—Still more effective than any device, method, and instructional material is the influence of the teacher in molding character. Children are quick to learn through imitation and model themselves after the people whom they admire. Following the precepts and examples of their progressive supervisors, teachers can make conscious efforts to develop such qualities of personality as fairness, firmness, and friendliness. If, in such an atmosphere, the ideal of desirable human relations cannot be taught, it will surely be caught.

Patience.—Even though we cannot use a micrometer or some objective standardized test to measure such intangibles as good fellowship, social service, co-operativeness, courtesy, sympathy, leadership, school spirit, and friendliness, we can observe growth in these social relations in our classes, in the corridors, in the auditorium, on the street, and on the transit lines.

It will take considerable patience and faith in our profession to produce the result we strive for. However, the realization of this desideratum will be worth all the exasperation and disappointment attendant upon the development of desirable social relations. The true teacher of today, like the great teachers of the past, will find his reward in the final fruition of his efforts to build an enduring brotherhood of man.

DISABILITIES OF COLLEGE FRESHMEN IN SENTENCE STRUCTURE

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NATURE OF THE STUDY

FOR many years the Guiler-Campbell Analytical Survey Test in English Fundamentals¹ has been given early in the college year to Miami University Freshmen. The test covers seven phases of English usage: spelling, capitalization, punctuation, sentence organization, sentence structure, grammatical usage, and grammatical terminology. The purpose of this article is to report the results of an analytical study of the difficulties encountered by college Freshmen on the sentence-structure phase of the Analytical Survey Test.

The study deals with a phase of learning the social value of which is unquestioned. Intercommunication is one of life's major activities. The things which are communicated consist of ideas. The most common carrier of ideas is language, of which the unit is the sentence. With these statements in mind, it becomes apparent that a person cannot become proficient in the performance of language activities until he possesses, along with other skills, the ability to use sentences that are structurally correct.

¹ Published by the Hill-Brown Printing Co., Hamilton, Ohio.

The Freshmen included in the study were those who entered college in the 1939-40 school year. This group was selected in order that the test performance of the students would be representative of that of Freshmen in the years when college enrolments were not affected by World War II. Of the 1,267 college Freshmen (751 boys and 516 girls) included in the study, 479 were enrolled in the College of Arts and Sciences; 360, in the School of Business Administration; 363, in the School of Education; and 65, in the School of Fine Arts.

The sentence-structure phase of the Analytical Survey Test is reproduced below in order to acquaint the reader with the test content and with the testing procedures that were employed. It should be noted that the student is called on *first* to judge the structural correctness of the various test items and *then* to specify the principle which governs the structural correctness or incorrectness of each item. It should be noted, also, that Principle 4 does not govern the structure of any of the test items.

RESULTS

Total test scores.—The mean scores made by the college Freshmen on the sentence-structure phase of the Ana-

Directions.—Notice the list of sentences in the left column and the list of principles in the right column. You are to do two things. **First**, place a **plus sign** in the parenthesis before each sentence that is correct in structure, and a **minus sign** in the parenthesis before each sentence that is incorrect in structure. **Second**, select the one principle that governs the structural correctness of each sentence, and write its number in the bracket at the end of the sentence to which the principle applies. Study the samples before you begin. Complete the work of writing signs in the parentheses before you begin to write numbers in the brackets.

SAMPLES: (+) 1. There goes the boy of whom we were speaking. [1]
 (—) 2. The library is where we read. [7]

*Sentences**Principles*

- | | |
|--|---|
| () 1. Because the butterfly hatches from a cocoon. [5] | 1. A relative pronoun must have a definite grammatical use in its own clause. |
| () 2. The fact that I had never skated, I was unable to keep my balance. [2] | 2. There should be no awkward shift in the structure of the sentence. |
| () 3. There was one student whom I could not say whether he was a freshman or not. [3] | 3. Every pronoun must have an antecedent definitely expressed. |
| () 4. A blizzard is raging in Chicago is the latest weather report. [1] | 4. An attribute complement (i.e. predicate noun or pronoun) must be in the nominative case. |
| () 5. The pianist whom we listened last night was educated in Austria. [1] | 5. A true sentence must be independent in grammatical form. A subordinate clause cannot be a sentence. |
| () 6. Traveling is when people go from one place to another. [] | 6. Complete sentences cannot be used as subjects or predicate nouns with is or was . (Quoted sentences are exceptions to this rule.) |
| () 7. A large minority voted against the measure which shows how the people felt. [] | 7. A clause used as a subject or predicate noun must be the equivalent of a noun. When , where , and because clauses are not noun clauses. |
| () 8. "The wigwam of the American Indian is often called a tepee" was the teacher's exact statement. [] | |
| () 9. The reason the Thompsons are quarantined is because Robert has the measles. [] | |
| () 10. Many people can operate a typewriter nowadays which is probably one reason for poor handwriting. [3] | |

Score = number of parentheses and brackets containing right answers.....
 Possible score = 20 points.

lytical Survey Test are recorded in Table 1. The complete tabulation of the scores revealed a number of important facts. One fact was that some of the students manifested marked proficiency in dealing with the test items, while many of the students exhibited marked incompetency in sentence structure. Comparison of the individual test scores with the test norms showed that approximately

TABLE 1
MEAN SCORES MADE BY 1,267 COLLEGE
FRESHMEN IN FOUR SCHOOLS ON
SENTENCE-STRUCTURE TEST

COLLEGE OR SCHOOL	MEAN SCORE		
	Boys	Girls	Total
Arts and Sciences.....	10.3	12.8	11.2
Business Administration.....	9.2	12.5	9.8
Education.....	9.8	12.0	11.3
Fine Arts.....	10.0	10.5	10.2
All schools.....	9.8	12.3	10.8

half the students were below the norm for Grade XII, that more than a third were below the norm for Grade X, and that more than a tenth were below the norm for Grade VIII. Another fact was that marked individual differences characterized the attainments of the students, the scores varying from zero to perfect. The greatest variations occurred among the boys in the College of Arts and Sciences and among the girls in the School of Education; the least variation occurred among the girls in the School of Business Administration.

Table 1 shows that there was considerable variation in the average

achievement of the Freshmen in the different schools. The highest mean scores were attained by the Freshmen in the School of Education and in the College of Arts and Sciences, and the lowest mean score by those in the School of Business Administration. There were significant sex differences in sentence-structure ability, the girls having attained a mean score of 12.3 and the boys a mean score of 9.8. Sex differences were most pronounced among Freshmen in the School of Business Administration and least pronounced among those in the School of Fine Arts.

Scores on separate aspects of sentence structure.—The mean scores made by the college Freshmen on the two aspects of sentence structure covered by the test are presented in Table 2. The major fact revealed by the table is that the students encountered far more difficulty in applying principles than in recognizing structural correctness. Out of a possible score of ten on each of the aspects of the test, the mean score was 7.0 on the first aspect and only 3.8 on the second aspect. Evidently the students were prone to view the structure of the test items more on the basis of their form and appearance than on the basis of applicability of principles. In the last analysis, it would seem that, in viewing sentence structure, as well as in passing judgment on other things in life, one needs the support of guiding principles in making valid decisions as to what constitutes right and wrong.

Another fact is that there was some

variation from school to school both in ability to recognize structural correctness and in ability to apply principles. A third fact (not shown in the table) is that the boys and the girls differed more in ability to apply principles than in ability to recognize structural correctness. This type of sex variation was most pronounced among students in the School of Business Administration and least pronounced among those in the School of Fine Arts.

Difficulties in judging structural correctness.—The first thing that the college Freshmen were called on to do in the sentence-structure phase of the Analytical Survey Test was to indicate the items that were structurally correct and the ones that were structurally incorrect. The quality of the students' performance on this aspect of the test is shown in Table 3.

The major fact revealed by the percentages of students exhibiting weakness in judging correctness is that a significant proportion of the college Freshmen could not be relied on to detect the structural correctness or incorrectness of the test items. When the total group of Freshmen is considered, it is found that one-fourth or more were unable to cope with six of the ten items; one-third or more, with four items; and one-half or more, with three items. A second fact is that there were significant differences in the extent of difficulty caused by the various test items. Thus, while Items 1, 2, 5, and 8 caused difficulty for less than one-fourth of all the students,

Items 7, 9, and 10 caused difficulty for more than one-half of the students.

A third fact is that marked differences characterized the extent of difficulty that was encountered in judging the structure of different items involving the same sentence-structure ability. Judging the structural correctness of Items 6 and 9, for example, in-

TABLE 2
MEAN SCORES MADE BY 1,267 COLLEGE
FRESHMEN IN FOUR SCHOOLS ON TWO
ASPECTS OF SENTENCE STRUCTURE

COLLEGE OR SCHOOL	MEAN SCORE	
	Recognition of Structural Correctness	Application of Principles
Arts and Sciences.....	7.1	4.1
Business Administration.....	6.5	3.3
Education.....	7.2	4.2
Fine Arts.....	7.0	3.2
All schools.....	7.0	3.8

volves a common ability—recognition of the idea that a clause used as a subject or as a predicate noun must be the equivalent of a noun. Notwithstanding the fact that the two test items involve the same ability, the percentage of the total group of Freshmen who missed Item 9 was 16.8 points higher than the percentage of those who missed Item 6.

A fourth fact is that disability in judging the structure of the test items was more widespread in some of the divisions of the University than in others. The disability was most prevalent in the School of Business Ad-

ministration and least prevalent in the College of Arts and Sciences and in the School of Education. In the case of individual test items, differences among the Freshmen in the four schools in the matter of judging structural correctness were quite marked. In this connection, Item 6 serves as a good illustration.

principles reveals a number of salient facts. The most striking fact is the widespread inability of the college Freshmen to apply principles in determining the structural correctness of the test items. Inspection of the last column of the table shows that not less than one-fifth of the total group of Freshmen encountered difficulty in

TABLE 3
PERCENTAGE OF COLLEGE FRESHMEN EXHIBITING WEAKNESS IN ABILITY TO
RECOGNIZE STRUCTURAL CORRECTNESS OF SENTENCES AND
IN ABILITY TO APPLY PRINCIPLES

TEST ITEM	PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS IN COLLEGE OF ARTS AND SCIENCES FAILING TO—		PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS IN SCHOOL OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION FAILING TO—		PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS IN SCHOOL OF EDUCATION FAILING TO—		PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS IN SCHOOL OF FINE ARTS FAILING TO—		PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS IN ALL FOUR SCHOOLS FAILING TO—	
	Recognize Correctness	Apply Principle	Recognize Correctness	Apply Principle	Recognize Correctness	Apply Principle	Recognize Correctness	Apply Principle	Recognize Correctness	Apply Principle
1.....	0.8	16.3	3.0	23.3	1.4	22.0	1.5	20.0	1.7	20.1
2.....	12.5	47.0	15.0	50.6	15.2	51.0	15.4	60.2	14.1	50.3
3.....	28.2	74.9	29.7	76.4	26.4	75.2	20.0	78.5	27.7	75.6
4.....	23.6	43.0	29.2	53.6	23.1	45.7	32.3	55.4	25.5	47.6
5.....	18.0	69.5	21.9	78.3	23.9	67.2	16.9	80.0	20.8	71.9
6.....	30.7	58.9	46.1	68.3	30.3	51.5	36.9	60.2	35.3	60.0
7.....	50.1	81.0	59.7	88.1	51.2	81.0	50.8	80.2	53.2	83.4
8.....	20.7	49.9	25.6	65.6	17.4	51.5	13.8	58.5	20.8	55.2
9.....	49.5	62.8	61.1	71.9	46.0	56.2	55.4	73.8	52.1	64.1
10.....	51.6	85.2	60.0	90.0	50.7	82.9	55.4	90.8	53.9	86.2
Mean...	28.6	58.9	35.1	66.6	28.6	58.4	29.8	68.5	30.5	61.4

Difficulties in applying principles.—The second thing that the college Freshmen were asked to do was to select from a list of principles the ones that govern the structural correctness of the various test items. The quality of the students' performance in the application of principles is also shown in Table 3.

Analysis of the percentages of students exhibiting weakness in applying

selecting the principle governing the structure of any of the ten test items. Two-fifths or more of the students selected the wrong principle for nine of the items; three-fifths or more selected the wrong principle for six of the items; and four-fifths or more selected the wrong principle for two of the items. A second fact is that much more difficulty was encountered in applying principles to some of the

items than to others. Thus less than one-fourth of the Freshmen failed to apply the right principle to Item 1, whereas more than three-fourths failed to apply the right principle to Items 3, 7, and 10.

A third fact is that there were no marked differences in the extent of difficulty encountered in applying a

application of the principles, the mean percentage of difficulty ranging from 58.4 in the School of Education to 68.5 in the School of Fine Arts. In the case of some of the individual test items, the variation was marked. In connection with Item 2, for example, the range amounted to 22.2 percentage points.

TABLE 4

ERROR QUOTIENTS OF 1,267 COLLEGE FRESHMEN IN ABILITY TO RECOGNIZE MISTAKES IN USE OF PRINCIPLES AND IN ABILITY TO APPLY SPECIFIC PRINCIPLES TO SENTENCE STRUCTURE

PRINCIPLE	TEST ITEM TO WHICH APPLICABLE	COLLEGE OF ARTS AND SCIENCES		SCHOOL OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION		SCHOOL OF EDUCATION		SCHOOL OF FINE ARTS		ALL SCHOOLS	
		Recognizing Mistake	Applying Principle	Recognizing Mistake	Applying Principle	Recognizing Mistake	Applying Principle	Recognizing Mistake	Applying Principle	Recognizing Mistake	Applying Principle
A true sentence must be independent in grammatical form. A subordinate clause cannot be a sentence.....	1	.01	.16	.03	.23	.01	.22	.02	.20	.02	.20
There should be no awkward shift in the structure of a sentence.....	2	.13	.47	.15	.51	.15	.51	.15	.69	.14	.50
Complete sentences cannot be used as subjects or as predicate nouns with "is" or "was." (Quoted sentences are exceptions to this rule).....	4 and 8	.22	.47	.27	.60	.20	.49	.23	.57	.23	.51
A relative pronoun must have a definite grammatical use in its own clause.....	3 and 5	.23	.72	.26	.77	.25	.71	.19	.79	.24	.74
A clause used as a subject or predicate noun must be the equivalent of a noun. "When," "where," and "because" clauses are not noun clauses.....	6 and 9	.40	.61	.54	.70	.38	.54	.46	.72	.44	.62
Every pronoun must have an antecedent definitely expressed.....	7 and 10	.51	.83	.60	.89	.51	.82	.53	.90	.54	.85
All principles.....		.28	.59	.35	.67	.29	.58	.29	.68	.30	.61

principle to items whose structure is governed by a common principle. Items 7 and 10, for example, violate the principle which states that a pronoun must have a definitely expressed antecedent. The percentage of Freshmen who failed to apply this common principle was 83.4 for Item 7 and 86.2 for Item 10.

A fourth fact is that there was some variation from school to school in the extent of difficulty encountered in the

Error quotients for specific abilities in recognition.—Data bearing on deficiencies of the college Freshmen in the various specific abilities implied in the test items are presented in Table 4. These shortcomings are expressed in terms of error quotients, which are determined by using the frequencies of error for an individual or a group as the numerator of a fraction in which the denominator shall represent chances for error. The error-quo-

tient technique is used in reporting the findings on specific disabilities because it considers the number of weaknesses in relation to the number of opportunities to display weakness.²

Reference to the number opposite Principle 3 in the column "Recognizing Mistake" for "All Schools" will serve to show how the error quotients were computed. Thus, 1,267 Freshmen tried the test items in which Principle 3 was involved. Since two test items (4 and 8) were used to measure the ability involved in Principle 3, there were 2,534 chances ($1,267 \times 2$) for the students to miss these items. Since the two items were missed a total of 586 times, the error quotient was .23 ($586 \div 2,534$).

The most significant fact revealed by the quotients for ability to recognize mistakes is the extent of weakness shown by the college Freshmen in most of the specific abilities involved in recognizing the structural correctness of the test items. For only one of the six abilities was the error quotient below .10; for four abilities it was above .20; for two abilities it was above .40; and for one ability it was above .50. A second fact is the marked variation in the extent of weakness shown in the various abilities, the quotients ranging from .02 to .54. A third fact is the greater extent of weakness manifested by Freshmen in the School of Business Administration than by those in any of the other three schools.

² Martin J. Stormzand and M. V. O'Shea, *How Much English Grammar?* p. 14. Baltimore: Warwick & York, Inc., 1924.

Error quotients for the application of specific principles.—Error-quotient data bearing on the inability of the college Freshmen to apply specific principles in determining the structure of the test items are also presented in Table 4. The main fact revealed is that the college Freshmen manifested marked weakness in the application of sentence-structure principles. For none of the six principles that were involved in determining the structure of the test items was the error quotient below .20; for five principles it was .50 or above; for three principles it was above .60; for two principles it was above .70; and for one principle it was above .80. Another fact is that the application of some of the principles caused much more difficulty than the application of others, the error quotients for the total group of Freshmen ranging from .20 for Principle 1 to .85 for Principle 6. A third fact is that disability in the application of principles was more marked in some of the schools than in others. The mean error quotient was higher in the School of Fine Arts and in the School of Business Administration than in the School of Education and in the College of Arts and Sciences.

REMEDIAL PROCEDURES

The analytical findings presented reveal a condition of learning that leaves much to be desired. That the situation is not hopeless is attested by the results yielded by a number of remedial projects in which instruction and practice were focused on individual learning needs. In one of these

projects, in which 135 college Freshmen (remedial students) were involved, the mean score in sentence structure on the final test was more than double that made on the initial test.³ The mean error quotient was reduced from .302 on the initial test to .059 on the final test. Interpreted in terms of grade norms, these gains represented an average growth of three or more years in sentence-structure ability. The time devoted to the project varied from four to ten hours according to the needs of the students concerned.

The plan of procedure that was used in the administration of the remedial projects consisted of the following steps: (1) discovering the weak students, (2) diagnosing the learning difficulties of the weak students, and (3) providing a program of instruction and practice geared to the particular learning needs of individual students. Merely knowing who the weak students are will not suffice. Nor will it be sufficient just to be aware of the students' learning difficulties. This information, important as it is, is of value only in giving direction to the instructional and practice needs of the students concerned. Teachers would do well to employ some of the techniques of good medical practice; the good physician does not stop with diagnosis but proceeds to therapy.

CONCLUSION

The following statements seem to be supported by the data that have

³ Walter S. Guiler, "Remediation of College Freshmen in Sentence Structure," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXVI (October, 1932), 110-15.

been presented and are made by way of summary and conclusion.

1. Ability in sentence structure is a composite of ability to apply several specific principles in the determination of structural correctness. For this reason, different learners may be expected to encounter difficulty in the application of different principles.

2. Some of the college Freshmen manifested outstanding ability in sentence structure; others exhibited marked disability.

3. The Freshmen included in the study varied greatly in ability to recognize the structural correctness of the test items and in ability to apply sentence-structure principles.

4. The Freshmen were weaker by far in ability to apply principles than in ability to recognize structural correctness.

5. The Freshmen manifested marked individuality in the types of difficulties which were encountered. This fact indicates a distinct need for individualized remedial instruction.

6. Because of the basic importance of ability to use sentences that are correct in structure, secondary schools should assume responsibility for effective training in this area of learning.

7. Institutions of higher learning that accept from secondary schools students who are unable to criticize their own discourse for structural correctness should feel obligated to institute programs of instruction whereby the students concerned may achieve sentence-structure competency.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON THE ORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

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THIS list of selected and annotated references covers approximately the same range of topics as that of a year ago. The distribution of emphasis is also similar, with problems of junior-college organization continuing to receive major attention. With a very few exceptions, there are no major studies likely to have a marked, long-time influence on the thinking and practice in this area. It is to be hoped that students of education will increase their attention to the organization problems which are fundamental to the improvement of secondary education.

GENERAL

499. *Basic Issues in Secondary Education*. A Report of a Consultative Committee of the New York State Education Department. Albany, New York: University of the State of New York Press, 1945. Pp. 80.

Outlines seventeen basic issues, discusses the military and school experiences during the war, and makes recommendations for the postwar period.

500. BOARDMAN, CHARLES W. "Some Post-war Problems of the Secondary School," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XX (January, 1946), 203-10. Suggests the postwar aspects of major problems facing the high school.

501. FRENCH, WILL. "Organization and Administration: The Federal and State

Levels" and "Organization and Administration: The Local Level," *The American High School: Its Responsibility and Opportunity*, pp. 215-35. Edited by Hollis L. Caswell. Eighth Yearbook of the John Dewey Society. New York: Harper & Bros., 1946.

Presents requirements of a sound state organization for secondary education and areas of needed improvement.

502. STILES, DAN. *High Schools for Tomorrow*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1946. Pp. x+212.

A popularized presentation of the ideas of a traveling school-assembly lecturer.

503. TAYLOR, DALE E. "Year-Round School," *School Executive*, LXV (December, 1945), 50-51.

Describes the procedure followed in setting up an all-year program at Norris, Tennessee.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

504. COLE, THOMAS R. "What Grades Should Constitute the Junior High School?" *American School Board Journal*, CXII (February, 1946), 42.

Reports arguments in the discussion of a school-building program.

JUNIOR COLLEGE

505. BURNS, NORMAN. "The State-controlled Junior Colleges in Georgia," *School Review*, LIII (December, 1945), 595-600.

Presents evidence to indicate that the broader objectives of junior-college education are difficult to attain in state-controlled institutions such as exist in Georgia.

506. HYER, JUNE. "Shangri-La, a People's College," *Educational Forum*, X (November, 1945), 101-7.

Suggests a desirable framework and procedure for creation of a people's college.

507. KOOS, LEONARD V. *Integrating High School and College: The Six-Four-Four Plan at Work*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1946. Pp. vi+208.

Appraises the six-four-four plan of organization on the basis of opinions of administrators, provisions for students, instruction, facilities, and related features.

508. KOOS, LEONARD V. "The Six-Four-Four Plan at Work," *Forthcoming Developments in American Education*, pp. 115-26. Compiled and edited by William C. Reavis. Proceedings of the Fourteenth Annual Conference of Administrative Officers of Public and Private Schools, Vol. VIII. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945.

Reports some of the findings and conclusions of a large-scale inquiry relating to the organization of secondary education.

509. MACLEAN, MALCOLM S. "What Constitutes an Adequate Junior College Program?" *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, XXI (April, 1946), 348-58.

Analyzes the basic elements essential to the organization of an adequate postwar program.

510. MEADE, R. D. "The Junior College Is Today's Challenge," *School Management*, XV (November, 1945), 177.

Discusses the proposals of Leonard V. Koos and Raymond D. Meade concerning the organization of the junior college in Illinois.

511. REEVES, ROBERT L. "Proposed Charter for the Community Institute," *School and Society*, LXII (July 14, 1945), 27-29.

Lists principles and provisions which might serve as a platform to govern the establishment of the community institute.

512. SEXSON, JOHN A., and HARBESON, JOHN W. *The New American College:*

The Four-Year Junior College Grades 11 to 14 Inclusive Organized and Administered as a Single Institution. New York: Harper & Bros., 1946. Pp. xviii+312.

An overview of the philosophy, development, and major problems of organization and administration of the new American college, with particular reference to the Pasadena Junior College.

513. THADEN, J. F. "We Need 13th and 14th Years," *Nation's Schools*, XXXVII (April, 1946), 45-46.

Analyzes the factors that gave impetus to the need for the junior-college years.

514. WHITE, ROBERT, JR. "Feasibility of 6-4-4 Reorganization in School Systems with Junior Colleges," *School Review*, LIV (March, April, and June, 1946), 140-47, 222-30, 351-59.

Discusses, under the following headings, a 1944 study of the feasibility of the six-four-four reorganization in a group of ten Iowa school systems maintaining junior colleges: (1) "Relation of the Faculty to Reorganization," (2) "Housing as a Factor in Reorganization," (3) "The Guidance Program as a Factor in Reorganization."

515. WHITE, ROBERT, JR. "Feasibility of the 6-4-4 Plan in Iowa," *Junior College Journal*, XVI (April, 1946), 358-62.

Summarizes a study of the progress and future prospects of high-school and junior-college integration in ten Iowa cities maintaining public junior colleges.

516. ZOOK, GEORGE F. "Changing Patterns of Junior College Education," *Junior College Journal*, XVI (May, 1946), 411-17.

Suggests seven guides for the direction of the junior college.

ARTICULATION

517. BENZ, HARRY E. "Students Entering College without Credit in High-School Mathematics," *School Review*, LIV (June, 1946), 334-41.

Presents a report for one state university on the success of students who take algebra and geometry after entering college.

518. BROOKS, T. D. "Proposed Changes in College Admission Practices," *Texas Outlook*, XXIX (August, 1945), 16-19. Gives the full report of the special committee of the Association of Texas Colleges on needed changes in the college-admission plans currently in use by Texas colleges.
519. BURNETT, R. WILL. "Some Pertinent Facts on the Relation between High School and College Education," *Science Education*, XXIX (October, 1945), 209-12. In formulating a tenable position regarding the proper function of the secondary school and its best articulation with the college, data gathered by J. Paul Leonard are related to other facts in the field of science education.
520. CARROTHERS, GEORGE E. "Criteria for Selecting College Students," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXX (April, 1946), 85-91. Proposes and discusses a set of criteria to supplant the customary college-entrance requirements.
521. HUGHES, W. L. "Buck-passing between High Schools and Colleges," *Secondary Education*, XIV (November, 1945-January, 1946), 12-14. Discusses the problem of high-school and college relations and offers a solution.
522. PETERSON, B. H. "Co-ordinating Education," *Junior College Journal*, XVI (April, 1946), 369-70. Reports the accomplishments of the Master Committee on Relations of Schools (high schools and junior colleges) for the State of California.
523. REEVES, FLOYD W. "Reorganization . . . An Educational 'Must,'" *Montana Education*, XXII (March, 1946), 9-11. Analyzes the need of, and procedures for, reorganization that will permit an adequate secondary-school program in rural areas.
524. ROGERS, MARY. "Possible Articulation for the Junior High School with the Elementary School and the Senior High School," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXXVIII (October, 1945), 252-58. Suggests procedures for articulation of the mathematics program.
525. THOMAS, FRANK W., MURDOCK, FORREST G., and HEPNER, WALTER R. "Common Problems of the State Colleges and Secondary Schools," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XX (December, 1945), 427-37. Sets forth the joint interests and common tasks of the Fresno State College and San Diego State College.

RURAL HIGH SCHOOLS

526. BLANCHARD, B. EVERARD. "A Neglected Area in Rural Secondary-School Education," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXIX (December, 1945), 122-25. Points out that exacting requirements of state and regional accrediting agencies, as well as college-entrance requirements, are retarding the reform of the rural high school.
527. DAWSON, HOWARD A. "The Organization and Financing of Rural Schools," *Education for Rural America*, pp. 119-42. Edited by Floyd W. Reeves. Report of the Conference on Rural Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945. Discusses this problem under the following heads: (1) the relation of social and economic change to school organization, (2) a satisfactory local organization for public schools, (3) procedures in the reorganization of local school units, and (4) relation between school organization and financing.
528. GETMAN, ARTHUR K. "Proposals for the Continued Education of Out-of-School Rural Youth," *School Management*, XV (June, 1946), 38-39.

Summarizes minimum standards that should be established and maintained for the equalization of educational opportunities for older youth in rural areas.

529. "The Organization and Administration of Rural Education," *Report of Group V: The White House Conference on Rural Education*, pp. 153-62. Washington: National Education Association, 1944.

Reviews briefly the status and problems of educational organization and proposes standards for satisfactory secondary-school administrative organization at the local, state, and federal levels.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION¹

530. ANDREWS, MARGARET E. "Minneapolis' Successful Junior-High Work Program," *Clearing House*, XX (October, 1945), 106-9.

Reports and evaluates the work-experience programs organized in two Minneapolis junior high schools.

531. BECKLEY, DONALD K., and SMITH, LEO F. "Co-operative Education—The Graduates' Viewpoint," *School Review*, LIV (May, 1946), 299-301.

Describes the co-operative work program at the Rochester Institute of Technology and gives the results of a questionnaire survey on the opinion of graduates concerning various features of the program.

532. LONDON, H. H., and HOSTETLER, IVAN. "Guiding Principles in Planning Postwar Programs of Industrial Education," *American School Board Journal*, CXII (June, 1946), 33-34, 66.

Attempts to formulate a group of guiding principles on the basis of findings from a nation-wide study which will help in planning sound programs of industrial education.

533. MILLER, EDWARD R. "Volunteer Work Camp: A New Instrument of Educa-

tion," *Education*, LVI (January, 1946), 318-20.

Presents the educational implications, as interpreted by the American Friends Service Committee, of work camps organized for high-school youth.

534. POPE, JOHN B. "Organizing a High School Co-operative Program in the Distributive Occupations," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXX (January, 1946), 30-38.

Summarizes in chronological order those points with which the principal will be concerned in organizing the in-school program for the distributive occupations and the activities related thereto.

535. ROBINSON, ORMSBEE W. "Planning a Work Experience Program," *School Executive*, LXIV (August, 1945), 52-54.

Sets up procedures to be followed in organizing (1) summer work camps and (2) the work experience as part of the regular school program.

536. TURRELL, A. M. "Vocational Guidance and Education—A National Need," *Journal of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, XXI (January, 1946), 211-18.

Discusses the general problem of vocational orientation and lists some of the specific organizational problems to be met.

537. *Vocational Education in the Years Ahead*. A Report of a Committee To Study Postwar Problems in Vocational Education. United States Office of Education, Vocational Division Bulletin No. 234, General Series, No. 7, 1945. Pp. xiv+330.

Analyzes national conditions and needs in respect to vocational education in the postwar years.

538. "What about Area Vocational Schools?" *Nation's Schools*, XXXVI (November, 1945), 43.

Reports the results of an opinion poll of five hundred school administrators.

¹ See also Items 347 (Lowe) and 353 (Sutherland) in the list of selected references appearing in the March, 1946, number of the *School Review*.

EDUCATION FOR VETERANS

539. HOOVER, FLOYD W. "Correspondence Schools for Veterans?" *School Executive*, LXV (June, 1946), 57.

Supervised correspondence courses are recommended for situations where the enrollment does not warrant separate classes for veterans. Cites the programs of the University of Nebraska Extension Division as an example.

540. SCHAEFER, HENRY BURNELL. "Veterans' Program in the Academic High Schools," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXVIII (June, 1946), 18-36.

Gives an account of the efforts of the New York City High School Division to establish training programs in the academic day and evening high schools which will meet the needs of veterans.

541. SEGEL, DAVID. "Veterans' Plans for Education—Report of a Denver Survey," *School Life*, XXVIII (March, 1946), 27-28.

Reports on the procedures used in organizing the Denver veterans' program.

ADULT EDUCATION

542. HOULE, CYRIL O. "The Organization of Educational Opportunities for Adults in Public Schools," *Forthcoming Developments in American Education*, pp. 127-36. Compiled and edited by William C. Reavis. Proceedings of the Fourteenth Annual Conference of Administrative Officers of Public and Private Schools, Vol. VIII. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1945.

Explores the need for adult education and formulates several principles that are essential in a course of action.

543. *Now—in Our Town: Emerging Administrative Practices in Adult Education in Public Schools and Colleges*. The Re-

gional Committee on Adult Education of the American Association of School Administrators. Washington: American Association of School Administrators (no date). Pp. vi+34.

A statement of issues and brief reports on the administrative practices of nine experimental adult-education programs.

544. REDD, GEORGE N. "Adult Education for Negroes under Public School Auspices," *Journal of Negro Education*, XIV (Summer Number, 1945), 312-21.

Indicates how programs are administered, the extent of participation, and the types of programs available in those states which maintain, by law, separate schools for Negroes.

COMMUNITY AGENCIES

545. BOYCE, GEORGE A. "A Working Plan for Education in the Community," *Clearing House*, XX (April, 1946), 455-58.

Discusses the problem of how to establish administrative relations between schools and other agencies of a community, to promote effective community-wide education on current problems.

546. SCOTT, W. JOE. "Schools Can Create Democracy's Communities," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXX (May, 1946), 73-84.

Describes the work of the Bass Junior High School, Atlanta, Georgia, in developing a broad base of participation in community planning and activity.

547. TODD, L. O. "How One College Serves Five Counties," *Junior College Journal*, XVI (March, 1946), 295-97.

Describes the experiments of East Central Junior College, Mississippi, in co-ordinating and stimulating existing institutions and action agencies in developing better community activities.

Educational Writings

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REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY HEALTH PROGRAMS.—The problem of personal and public health is ever with us. During times of stress and strain in the life of an individual, or in the life of a nation, the lack of "being well" is both obvious and critical. Plans and programs of action are likely to follow these distressing experiences. As the result of wide inventories growing out of the recent military struggles, the nation is just beginning to generalize regarding the health of the people. A suggested program of action¹ is addressed to educators and lay leaders of rural communities.

The essay is brief and written in understandable language. The tendency of health authorities and other professional writers to use technical terms is avoided. The book is divided into five parts. In the beginning the author gives a general treatment of rural health problems by identifying a few of the difficulties and describing some of the services afforded in many rural areas. In Parts II-V the reader is given more specific guidance in health problems concerning the individual child and the personal health of the teacher. Various units have been developed for the use of teachers in secondary schools of rural communities.

While the book is written to, and for, laymen, little that is new or different has been added. In spite of the fact that health instruction in public schools in this country is at least two generations old, it is true that the kind of health instruction offered in the past has proved ineffective in many instances. Newspapers, radio, life-insurance companies, and other agencies provide us all

with much free health information. The American child is continually told to drink orange juice, milk, and plenty of water. The same child is told to eat proper food, to get plenty of sleep, and to take proper exercise. In fact, there seems to be a surplus of health information, advice, and counsel. Nevertheless, the health of rural people in general is deplorably bad. Obviously much more than information, advice, and counsel are needed to solve this problem.

The scarcity of health personnel in rural communities is mentioned frequently by the author. However, the shortage of doctors and nurses cannot be blamed entirely on the war, for this condition has been growing worse for the past half-century. Under the present plan of financing health services, rural families in many American communities cannot have a "family" physician. First of all, the incomes of most rural families are low, and, second, a great many physicians prefer to render service only in hospitals and will not make home calls.

Health needs and services, however, are universal. The public welfare is at stake, and, somehow or other, the problem must be solved. It is the opinion of the reviewer that licensed health authorities need to take a much more vigorous and active part in the solution. The author's traditional program is good as far as it goes, but much more is needed.

ERNIE B. McCUE

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THE MEANING AND VALUES OF PHILOSOPHY.—A new book by John Dewey is always a literary and professional event of great importance. However, in the case of the volume

¹ Nina B. Lamkin, *Health Education in Rural Schools and Communities*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1946. Pp. xii+210. \$2.50.

under review,¹ only the eighteen-page Introduction is actually new, but this fact does not prevent its welcome appearance from being a red-letter date in the educational calendar.

In the opening pages, reference is made to a recently published book sponsored by the American Philosophical Association, *Philosophy in American Education*, a volume representing the opinions and desires of the friends of philosophy concerning the future and influence of this subject. John Dewey compliments those who have co-operated in this defense of philosophy and supplements their efforts with his own characteristic plea for a stronger philosophical approach to the solution of the elusive, but nonetheless challenging, problems of mankind. He urges us to cease pursuing that will-o'-the-wisp traditionally called the "ultimate reality." He asks us to come down to earth and to make a more substantial contribution to human welfare.

The four major divisions of this book are "Democracy and Education," "Human Nature and Scholarship," "Value and Thought," and "About Thinkers." In the last section the author devotes a large share of space to the writings and doctrines of Samuel Taylor Coleridge, James Marsh, William James, and A. N. Whitehead. As most of these chapters are articles published in the late 1930's and early 1940's, the world-famous philosopher was in his top seventies and early eighties when much of this writing was done.

The publishers have made an excellent selection of material, representing a fairly logical sequence of topics. Moreover, this book makes widely accessible subject matter that might otherwise not be available to the very readers who relish this type of literature and benefit most from discussion on this high level. We all need to be reminded of the valuable service that philosophy can offer this

technology-minded modern world. It is easy to say that there is nothing basically new in this volume, but it is just as truthful to state that never before in America have we enjoyed the privilege of following such sound reasoning on such critical topics. Here we sense the fruits of decades of study, the culmination of a long life devoted to deep thinking.

The most amazing feature of the latest—but we hope not final—Dewey volume is the freshness and spontaneity of expression. Greater earnestness has never been found in a book dealing with such profound subjects of discussion. To new readers of John Dewey will come a full understanding of the significance of this name in the literature of psychology, education, politics, sociology, and philosophy. To old readers there will be discernible a provocativeness stronger than ever. The numerous allusions to history and to the struggle of man to make the most out of science and religion will be welcomed by both the disciples of our great laboratory innovators and the advocates of a more extensive application of religious principles to efficient social living.

Despite his nearly ninety years of effortful living, the Dewey intellect is still sharp and penetrating. John Dewey proves he is still competent to handle technical topics of high controversial potential, refuting cleverly the profoundest thrusts of his ideological rivals. No less than his most capable contemporaries, he displays a delicious sense of humor and attitudes of tolerance, reconciliation, and sympathy. He is the best living example of the philosophy of education that has long been associated with his name. His reverence for, and understanding of, the problems of childhood and the classroom will help to win a large audience of patrons for his latest book, in which we see better than ever before what the author wants us to accept as the meaning, purpose, and value of philosophy. Dewey has words of wisdom for idealists, pragmatists, realists, and rationalists. The relatively minor differences exist-

¹ John Dewey, *Problems of Men*. New York 16: Philosophical Library (15 East Fortieth Street), 1946. Pp. 424. \$5.00.

ing among the followers of these several aspects of philosophy are relegated in favor of the more vital matter of learning to live peacefully and productively with our fellow-men.

CARROLL D. CHAMPLIN

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HIGH SCHOOLS NEED A REBIRTH.—In the belief that the high school of today does not adequately meet pupil needs and that the high school of the future should be home- and community-centered, a former high-school teacher has published a forecast* in which he emphasizes the necessity of new practices in the American high schools of the future.

Stressing the point that our high schools have generally been out of step with the world about them, the author describes his "dream high school," listing the basic objectives and the courses of instruction which should support these objectives. In the proposed high school the children would live in community style. There would be a miniature bank, picture show, post office, cafeteria, library, and even a "juke joint." These projects would provide opportunities for actual life experiences and allow the students both exploration and tentative specialization. The first two years would feature general education for all students and would have these five objectives: (1) better citizenship, (2) choosing a career, (3) training for family life, (4) character development, and (5) enjoyment of life. The government of the school would be in complete charge of the students. There would be no college domination of the curriculum. The courses required for all students would be social studies, English, family living, and education for enjoyment.

The newest features of the proposed program include courses in family living, education for enjoyment, and some religious education of a nonsectarian type. Provision

* Dan Stiles, *High Schools of Tomorrow*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1946. Pp. x+212. \$2.50.

would be made for teen-age clubs with dairy bars, dancing, and a recreation program to help curb juvenile delinquency. There would even be some Sunday activities at the school. Pupil progress would be based on units rather than on semesters, so that brilliant students would graduate in two or three years, while the slower pupils would remain in high school for five or six years.

In concluding chapters, the author discusses some of the problems involved in establishing this type of high school, such as the kind of high-school teachers needed, the necessity for more adequate salaries, the difficulties caused by political domination in school programs, and the need for more adult education.

Many of the author's criticisms and generalizations are based more largely on his own opinions than on objective data. Doubt arises in the mind of the reader about the possibility of finding the versatile type of teachers required in this "dream high school."

In spite of the idealistic nature of this book, however, it offers a challenge to school administrators to examine critically our present-day practices, to inaugurate activities that will better meet the needs of youth, and to help the pupils cope with the problems of family and community life more effectively.

No high-school teacher, principal, or superintendent should forgo the reading of this stimulating publication.

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SURVEY OF COMMUNITY LIFE.—During recent years junior high school community civics textbooks have been planned quite differently from earlier books in this field. The most outstanding differences between new community civics textbooks and earlier publications are the personalized approach of the more recent books and their presentation of community case studies. One of these

new books is a challenging and stimulating textbook for ninth-grade students.¹ The organization and presentation are designed to help students to think for themselves and to raise problems about their own community. In reading this book, the students are encouraged to generalize from the information which is presented and to consider ways in which their own community may be made a better place in which to live.

The first 337 pages are devoted to a discussion of health, safety, education, recreation, beauty, transportation, manufacturing, and distribution. These chapters in Part I give a survey of community life in a number of actual communities which are located in different parts of the country. There are 152 pages in Part II devoted to the structure and functions of government under the following chapter titles: "Government Grows Out of Needs," "Government at Work in the Community," "Government in County and State," "Our National Government," and "How We Pay for Government." Part III consists of three chapters comprising 72 pages focused upon the theme "Looking Ahead." These final chapters emphasize personal growth and personal service. The material presented helps the students plan for the future, select vocations, and determine their goals.

There are many features in the textbook that boys and girls, as well as teachers, will find interesting and helpful. An outstanding contribution is the plan of organization. At the beginning of each chapter, the central understanding is printed in large, heavy type. In order to make this central understanding meaningful, a series of minor understandings is provided for the student before the text is begun. The chapter then proceeds with the development of each of these understandings. Thus, the pupil begins with gen-

eralizations and finally arrives at the central understanding which has been stated at the beginning of the chapter. The authors are logical in their presentation, and there is no irrelevant subject matter included, for the plan of organization which they have adopted precludes irrelevancy. Therefore, pupils who read the book are certain to find only subject matter which is purposeful and meaningful to them.

Another feature of the book is a discussion, at the end of each chapter, entitled "Looking Ahead to the Next Chapter." By reading this preview, the pupil is prepared for the analysis of the subject matter in terms of the understandings which are given at the beginning of the following chapter.

This textbook is built upon the philosophy that an understanding of community living is developed by extensive reading of books on community living and by actual participation in the affairs of community life. The material given at the conclusion of each chapter is planned to accomplish these two purposes. A large amount of additional reading, which will provide information on subjects which are considered important, is suggested. These readings are cited along with the text material. This method of presentation is a definite advantage over the usual plan of providing lists of readings at the ends of chapters.

Provision is made also for committee work involving pupil-teacher planning. The educational advantage of correlating civics with other subjects is recognized by the authors. An intelligent use of this textbook is certain to aid in breaking down subject-matter barriers and should enable the teacher to bring to his civics classes an enrichment program which it would be impossible for him to do when using the traditional type of textbook. The activities which are suggested are carefully prepared and provide pupils with a diversified program of interesting and purposeful work-type and enrichment-type assignments.

The pictures, illustrations, cartoons, pho-

¹ Edward Krug and I. James Quillen, *Living in Our Communities: Civics for Young Citizens*. Basic Curriculum Social Studies. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1946. Pp. 598. \$2.64.

tographs, and charts are attractive and were chosen to illuminate specific understandings. The presentation of the text material is interesting and well adapted to the grade level of the pupils for whom the book is intended. The style of writing is graphic and informal.

This survey of community life is not just another book. It is a distinct contribution to

the literature of the field, and both pupils and teachers will enjoy its realistic treatment of life in representative American communities. Pupils who study this book should develop attitudes that will carry over into later adult activities.

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

DEWEY, JOHN. *Problems of Men*. New York 16: Philosophical Library (15 East Fortieth Street), 1946. Pp. 424. \$5.00.

First Denver Congress on Air Age Education Held at Denver, Colorado, July 23 to 28, 1945. Albuquerque, New Mexico: Published for the University of Denver Press at the University of New Mexico Press, 1946. Pp. vi+140. \$2.50. (Order from Social Science Foundation, University of Denver, Denver 10, Colorado.)

KLEIN, PAUL E., and MOFFITT, RUTH E. *Counseling Techniques in Adult Education*. New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1946. Pp. xii+186. \$2.00.

SCHONELL, FRED J. *The Psychology and Teaching of Reading*. Edinburgh, Scotland: Oliver & Boyd, 1946. Pp. 128.

WESLEY, EDGAR BRUCE, with the advice and assistance of MARY A. ADAMS. *Teaching Social Studies in Elementary Schools*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1946. Pp. xiv+362. \$2.75.

BOOKS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

CAMENISCH, SOPHIA C. *Chicago Review Studies in the Mechanics of Written English*. A Revision, Re-arrangement, and Enlargement of the Chicago Practice

Tests. Book I, pp. ii+67, \$1.25; Book II, pp. 68-107, \$1.25. Chicago 37: Clarke-McElroy Publishing Co. (6140 Cottage Grove Avenue), 1946.

CRAIG, HAZEL THOMPSON, and RUSH, OLA DAY. *Clothes with Character*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1946 (revised). Pp. viii+278. \$1.68.

KNIGHT, F. B., STUDEBAKER, J. W., and TATE, GLADYS. *Study Arithmetics*: Book 7, pp. 480, \$1.04; Book 8, pp. 512, \$1.08. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1946 (new edition).

MASON, JOSEPHINE DWIGHT, and O'BRIEN, GERTRUDE E. *Building Our Country*. A Practical Reader for Adults. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1946. Pp. xii+206. \$1.38.

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ALPENFELS, ETHEL J. *Sense and Nonsense about Race*. New York: Friendship Press, Inc., 1946. Pp. 48. \$0.25.

CHAMBERS, M. M. *Opinions on Gains for American Education from Wartime Armed Services Training*. A Preliminary Exploratory Report for the Commission on Implications of Armed Services Educational Programs. Washington 6: American Council on Education, 1946. Pp. viii+80. \$0.50.

COMMUNITY CHESTS AND COUNCILS. "A School Program for Community Chests and Councils" prepared by Edgar Dale

- and Mary Jane Affleck, pp. 22 (mimeographed), \$0.50; "Field Trips to Health and Welfare Agencies: A Curriculum Aid for Teachers and Students of Public, Parochial, and Private Schools," pp. 8 (mimeographed), \$0.50. New York 17: Community Chests and Councils, Inc. (155 East Forty-fourth Street), 1946.
- DILLON, HAROLD J. *Work Experience in Secondary Education: A Study of Part-Time School and Work Programs*. Publication 394. New York 16: National Child Labor Committee (419 Fourth Avenue), 1946. Pp. 96.
- FOSDICK, RAYMOND B. *The Rockefeller Foundation: A Review for 1945*. New York: Rockefeller Foundation (49 West Forty-ninth Street), 1946. Pp. 64.
- HURD, ARCHER WILLIS. "What the Testing Program in the Schools of Nursing Has Taught Us." Richmond 19, Virginia: Bureau of Educational Research and Service, Medical College of Virginia, 1946. Pp. viii+51 (mimeographed).
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- 1946 Achievement Testing Program in Independent Schools and Supplementary Studies*. Educational Records Bulletin, No. 45. New York 19: Educational Records Bureau, 1946. Pp. x+64.
- Program for Veterans Education: Secondary School Level*. St. Louis Park, Minnesota: Veterans Education Committee, Minnesota Secondary School Principals Association (M. H. Kuhlman, % St. Louis Park Junior-Senior High School). \$0.10.
- Status and Practices of Boards of Education*. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XXIV, No. 2. Washington 6: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1946. Pp. 47-84. \$0.25.
- THAYER, V. T. *Religion in Public Education*. Ethical Frontiers Series. New York 23: New York Society for Ethical Culture (2 West Sixty-fourth Street), 1946. Pp. 20. \$0.10.
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- UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EDUCATION:
Bulletin No. 3, 1946—*Education in Peru* by Cameron D. Ebaugh. Pp. viii+92. \$0.20.
Bulletin No. 5, 1946—*How To Build a Unit of Work* by Ruth G. Strickland. Pp. 48. \$0.15.
- MISCELLANEOUS PUBLICATIONS
- ST.-GEORGE, MAXIMILIAN J., and DENNIS, LAWRENCE. *A Trial on Trial: The Great Sedition Trial of 1944*. Published by the National Civil Rights Committee. Chicago: M. J. St.-George (10 South La Salle Street), 1946. Pp. 504. \$5.00.

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